

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

THE JOURNAL *of the* American
Association *of* Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers



WINTER, 1958

VOLUME THIRTY-THREE

NUMBER TWO

-
A
E
F
S
E
E
A
T

T
T
E
E
I
R
R
C
P

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

THE JOURNAL of the American
Association of Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers

ADMISSIONS FOR REGISTRARS	<i>Max S. Marshall</i>	133
ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS MOVE FREEDOM FORWARD	<i>Waurine Walker</i>	145
FOREIGN LANGUAGES AS A GRADUATE STUDY REQUIREMENT	<i>Francis J. Nock</i>	154
SELECTIVE ADMISSION OF AIR FORCE ACADEMY CADETS	<i>Virgil J. O'Connor</i>	163
EXPLORATION OF THE RESIDENCE PROBLEM	<i>Lowell B. Howard</i>	172
FOUR P'S IN A POD	<i>Richard L. Tuthill</i>	178
A SMALL COLLEGE-HIGH SCHOOL CONFERENCE	<i>Mary Rose McWilliams</i>	183
THE RELATION OF CERTAIN ASPECTS OF HIGH SCHOOL PERFORM- ANCE TO ACADEMIC SUCCESS IN COLLEGE	<i>J. Spencer Carlson and Victor Milstein</i>	185
THE EFFECT OF CAMPUS MARRIAGES ON PARTICIPATION IN COLLEGE LIFE	<i>Everett M. Rogers</i>	193
THE IDES OF MAY	<i>Elizabeth Gordon</i>	200
EDITORIAL COMMENT		202
BOOK REVIEWS		204
IN THE JOURNALS		229
REPORTED TO US		236
REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS		246
CORRESPONDENCE		248
PLACEMENT SERVICE		248

Contributors to This Issue

J. SPENCER CARLSON is Director of Admissions, University of Oregon.

ELIZABETH GORDON is Dean of Girls, Friends Academy, Locust Valley, N.Y.

LOWELL B. HOWARD is Assistant Professor of Business Law at Ohio University and Chairman of the Department. He is a member of the Ohio Bar.

MAX S. MARSHALL is Professor of Microbiology and Chairman of the Department, School of Medicine, University Medical Center, University of California, San Francisco.

MARY ROSE MCWILLIAMS is Director of Admissions, Cedar Crest College.

VICTOR MILSTEIN is a Research As-

sistant, Division of Neurology, University of Oregon Medical School, Portland.

FRANCIS J. NOCK is Associate Professor of German, University of Illinois.

VIRGIL J. O'CONNOR, Lt. Colonel, USAF, is Cadet Registrar, United States Air Force Academy.

EVERETT M. ROGERS is Assistant Professor of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, The Ohio State University.

RICHARD L. TUTHILL is University Registrar, Duke University.

WAURINE WALKER is Director, Teacher Relations and Certification, Texas Educational Agency, Austin.

FOUNDED in 1831, Xavier University is the oldest Roman Catholic institution of higher learning in the Northwest Territory and fifth oldest in the United States. The present enrollment approaches 4,000 full-time and part-time students. Xavier is one of 28 colleges and universities operated by the Society of Jesus in the United States.

* * *

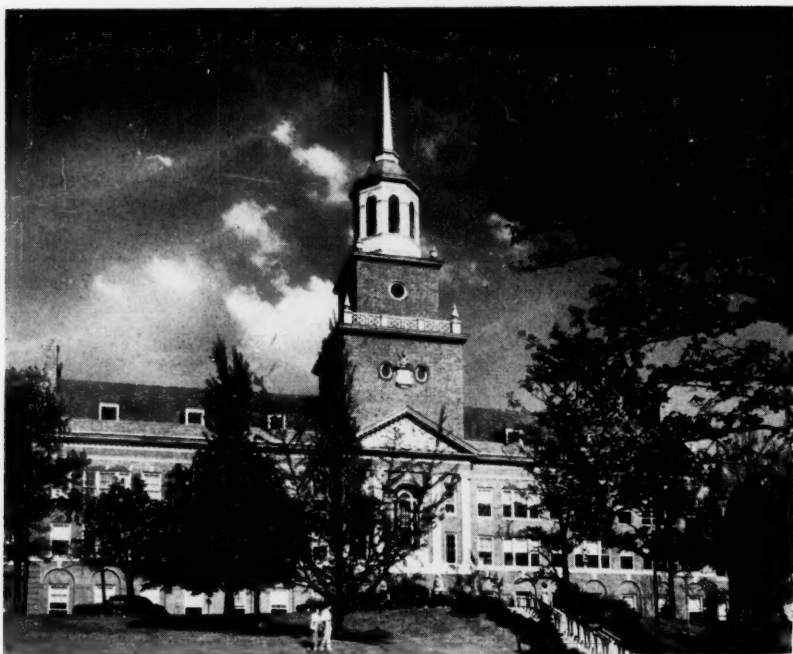
The University of Cincinnati, founded in 1819, is a municipal university, especially noted as the birthplace of co-operative education, originated there in 1906. The College of Medicine, oldest of 13 units, was established in 1819. Total enrollment for the fall of 1957 was 16,018.

* * *

The 44th Annual Meeting of AACRAO will be held in Cincinnati, Ohio, April 21-25, 1958, with headquarters at the Netherland Hilton Hotel.



HINKLE HALL, XAVIER UNIVERSITY



McMICKEN HALL, UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

WINTER
1958

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

VOLUME 33
NUMBER 2

THE JOURNAL *of the American*
Association of Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers

Admissions for Registrars

MAX S. MARSHALL

I

HAVING TRIED writing brochures for certain officials of campuses, for example one to deans on how they should perform,¹ without actually losing my scalp, a new attempt is perhaps in order. This is not a form of suicide, although deans can be powerful. When I get ready for so final a move I shall do a closing chapter on how to be a president. We of the faculty are, of course, the center of the campus, if not of the universe, and are entitled to advise our henchmen. My current concern is with officials who, in the language of the *Journal*, are called "Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers." Registrars are surely among the less collegiate members of the body politic on the campus and presumably admissions officers who admit anything, just possibly excepting students, are likely to wind up on the edge of town wearing tar and feathers. However, in dealing with officialdom the language used must be that of officialdom.

From Euclid to date introductions to arguments have stipulated certain points to be accepted as groundwork for further argumentation. On the campuses of colleges, schools, or universities the stipulated groundwork for discussing registrars and officers of admission

¹ Max S. Marshall, "How to Be a Dean," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, 42:636-643, 1956.

is simple. Without students colleges cannot function, although they remain on the map for long periods each year when they are rid of students and although anyone with the fortitude to attend meetings of committees on campuses would be amazed at how few debates consider problems of students. Members of the faculty have "teaching loads" and are much more interested, as a rule, in their fields of study than in their students, who thus become a sort of necessary evil. However, all agree that with no students the rest of the pleasant life on campuses would fall apart, so let us stipulate that we need students. This being true, (a) they must be admitted, (b) someone has to keep enough records to prove that they were there, and (c) in order not to have the campuses cluttered up with noisy juveniles who so frequently interfere with the faculty's studies, graduation is necessary. Students who cannot be tolerated another minute sometimes are sent home but dismissals have become decreasingly popular. The fact remains: students we need, so they must be admitted, registered, and sent home on some excuse or other when their usefulness is over or when they catch up with their teachers.

Registrars and officers of admission exist because of the above simple facts. However, we must go one step further and point out also that students do not constitute a college without a faculty. I propose to consider registrars and officers of admission from the point of view of a member of the faculty, this with all the objectivity of a true/false examination.² That is, as the faculty regards the students as necessary evils who appear disconcertingly each Fall, so the registrars and officers of admission view the faculty as a group of eccentrics who are stirred into a sort of befuddled ebullience each fall and wind up the year with a funeral dance performed in black gowns designed to hide the roundness of their shoulders or other portions of their anatomy. I do not really blame registrars for this viewpoint. It is natural; but it is only fair that the faculty have a chance to look at them in orderly fashion. The faculty is always articulate, although rarely about anything of consequence; but the registrars and officers of admission see the faculty during the year only in a series of minor explosions and not in any cohesive or orderly fashion. Just as the faculty avoids the students, these officials cannot be blamed if they escape on weekends to avoid seeing the faculties.

² Max S. Marshall, "Objections to the Objective Objective," *The Educational Forum*, 20:279-285, 1956.

II

Since the order of events begins with admission of students let us begin with officers of admission. These persons wield considerable power in a civilization in which an education, or at least a college degree which is hardly the same thing, becomes an order of merit and a license to survive. The power of officers of admission is augmented by the fact that the market is currently a buyer's market, with more applicants than space. Officers of admission will be quick to point out, however, that the power is sharply decreased by the fact they have no authority to admit anybody; they can only give their stamps of approval, this in spite of the fact that they spend more time looking into the backgrounds of applicants than anyone else. Their studies are ignored by occasional members of the faculty, not occasional enough, who knew Johnny or Suzie or *hirs** parents years ago, by alumni, and by a few administrative officials, including top directors, who consider friendship, relationship, parental cash or prestige, and talents in athletics as fine criteria for the famed label, "college material."

With both handicaps and advantages, the officer of admission is charged with finding suitable candidates. *Hesh* has to be something of a salesman, selling the school to students and parents, for even in a buyer's market there is nothing, fortunately, quite like a solid loyalty among the students and, later, among the alumni. A standard way to avoid criticism, thus creating a pleasant atmosphere, is to attract by blinding the customer with a flash of glamour, thereafter building a fence around the campus so that the student never discovers (a) that the community includes more than the college and (b) that other colleges include more than groups of students who come from foreign places to insert their obnoxious presences on the home campus for a Saturday now and then. Noncoeducational colleges in the East may wish to revise this thought radically.

Once started, the officer of admission is thoroughly embroiled in *hirs* work. The armamentarium varies but includes invariant essentials over and above the inherent talent for salesmanship. For instance, *hirs* knowledge of rules and regulations must transcend that of anyone else, possibly excepting the registrar and the assistant to the president.

* This is not yet in print, but it can start now. He or she = *hesh*; his or her = *hirs*; and him or her = *herm*. These new pronouns belong in the language. They should have appeared long since.

Smart presidents frequently combine the two officers under discussion, knowing that their deans do well enough in their own zones but that the officer of admission has to speak the language of all deans, at home and elsewhere. Officers of admission meet questions about the requirements for admission, commonly known as "college entrance requirements" under the collegiate practice of making adjectives of any noun in complete defiance of the requirements for reasonably acceptable English. Awe and admiration can be felt over glib recitals of units and courses, complete with possible substitutions and assorted subterfuges, but this is properly mixed with a tolerant amusement over the smallness of the routine. Honest men and women are not always able to restrain themselves as they wonder whether the goal is the acquisition of a cleancut lad or lass with some brains, a good outlook, and a promising future, or the admission of virtually anyone who managed to get six units of science rather than four. Some of the officers of admission become so enamored by their rules that they begin to believe the blamed things, but a goodly number of them meet charges with the standard reply: "We are expected to enforce the rules, but we do not make them."

Since more applicants than most colleges can accept acquire the courses and units prescribed by rules the next problem faced by officers of admission is one of selection. The fun then begins, with parents, faculty, and administrators hovering around the key pair, the officer and the applicant. A good course in pediatrics would be of material aid to officers of admission. I suggest sabbatical leaves of absence for those folk dealing with admissions who manage to survive long enough to warrant one, so that they can learn how to fend off parents, a process frequently more arduous than the task of selection. Members of the faculty are usually no more annoying than parents; but when top administrators, trustees, or regents step in the best move is to set aside the moral issues, not so much concurring as refraining from voting.

The officer of admission is confronted with applicants and a mass of credentials. The first move is routine, the elimination of applicants who have only four units where the rules call for six. That is, this should be routine. A school of the Middle West, known for athletic prowess, had a few special officers of admission who were required to keep one foot on the campus after the fashion of a first baseman. Its scout—pardon me, officer of admission—found an athlete with wholly inadequate courses and those not passed, so the boy got no

encouragement. In a matter of days a rival college had given him a special examination, admitting him under that famous banner, "college material." The "standard" of the school, usually meaning its book of rules, does cut down the list of applicants to those who may be acceptable. Then come comparisons of grades, interviews, aptitude tests, letters of recommendation, advice from counselors, and standard examinations. Although not all of these are used in all schools or with each applicant they will all appear in the lives of every officer of admission.

Analysis of each of these screens would be valuable but this would deviate from the main thesis. The rulebook on tests and grades blocks choice by the officer of admission, but these other screens permit latitude and the use of judgment. This is a precarious feature of selection. The dangers in use of these peripheral screens cause some persons, unfortunately including certain disloyal members of the tribe of officers of admission, to want to mechanize the entire system, pretending to eliminate human judgment. These members should be barred from the Society; barring them from society might be an even better move. We live in a world of human equations. The human factor is found in applicants, parents, faculties, and with a special flavor among the mechanists of officers of admission. With absolute certainty the mechanized schemes are mere inactivated images of human judgments, with the ball bearings and oil removed so that they cannot run well.

The officer of admission eventually interviews young folk who are in the worst possible state of mind for revealing anything, meets environmental persons who are trying to put over deals, and gets indigestion from ancillary food. Hesh gets impossible sets of scores of varied sorts. Supposed to know which high school or preparatory school is better than another, hesh knows well that the applicant may or may not fit this rather wild generalization. Grades are submitted for inspection. Naive officers of admission, and an even greater percentage of members of the faculty who get in on the final decisions, subscribe to a "discovery" on which repeatedly hundreds of thousands of dollars have been spent to reach a conclusion which is not only invariant but could have been secured in five minutes by asking the nearest freshman in high school: that records of *grades* constitute the best available single predictive measure of the ability to *get grades*. How to get grades is well known to all intelligent students by late high school ages. Getting them has little to do with education. What

does happen is that those who get good grades by natural earned routes are added to those who get them by strategy, personality, memory, and the like, thus providing the beloved "correlations" for the statisticians and other numerologists who regard numbers as more significant than persons.

The arduous process of selection eventually culminates in a series of meetings in which the officer of admission can have a bad time, meetings for the final selection of accepted students. Any officer of admission worth his salt by this stage feels that his own judgment, dubious as it is, is a better bet than that of a committee. Personally I'll buy that. To accept the judgment of the officer of admission would risk the danger of a stereotyped acceptance, adapted in some degree to the whims of said officer. For instance, no one can fully settle the debate about the value of "amiability" in applicants. Some persons feel that normal temperament and amiable dispositions are the best for all concerned; others, usually themselves independent, feel that creative genius and American freedom are not consistent with too much emphasis on amiability. Teachers find normal and amiable students easier and more pleasant to deal with than others, of course, so much so that new officers of admission who strongly favor congenial dispositions are soon noted and commended. Conversely, if the strongly independent souls had their ways, only those eccentric in noticeable degree would arrive on the campus. Thus the outcome is comparable to acceptance of a manuscript by a journal with a good free-swinging editor with some nerve and a mind of his own as opposed to acceptance by a journal controlled by an editorial board. Manuscripts may get by the independent editor that should not, and the journal reflects a bit of his personal flavor, but it does amount to something, if the editor is any good; however, the journal controlled by an editorial board, like much that is committee-ridden, is reasonably safe but virtually sterilized.

Remarks about officers of admission cannot be closed without some attention to the steady bombardment regarding their labors regularly staged by members of the faculty, often political, frontal, and subversive. Only unusually good (??) students avoid incompatibility with some instructor along the way, yet every student who does not suit an instructor can be called one of the failures on the part of the officer of admission. A solid politician amongst such officers, and all must be politicians in a degree, would not hesitate to say that the admission of students by drawing straws would probably pass un-

noticed. I have always wanted to try this just to see how long it took the faculty to catch up. The thought is not a reflection on the inadequacy of the efforts of those who admit students. The desire arises from a hankering to demonstrate the extent to which whims, personal biases, and real differences of opinion influence our judgments of our fellow men.

The officer of admission has to be a realist among visionaries, a person so dedicated to right and wrong, to human decency and Constitutional rights, to impartiality and well-grounded social relationships, to Americanism and opportunity, and to the fallibility of faculties, that hesh can rise above opinions of the faculty. Criticism is inevitable, with not over five per cent of it justified. This definitely does not imply that officers of admission are 95 per cent accurate; drawing straws would work moderately well. The point is that officers of admission are a dedicated group and, although some of them can be small at times, they are much more on guard against bias than anyone else. Those unaccustomed to the task regard their own biases as impartial truths. Schools which accept only applicants in the monied group, only those with certain talents, only those who are amiable, only those of certain races or religions, or only those headed for science are suspect. Bias is not wrong of itself, for schools are entitled to specific goals and purposes, but purely on educational grounds bias is often dangerous.

III

Once students, faculty, and officialdom are assembled the school goes to work with what it has, good and bad; but somewhere we must put in the registrar to record what happens. The registrar has a file or a card for each student, with the obvious duty of collecting some sort of symbols to indicate courses taken and records made in the courses. This is in itself enough to produce a headache. The most common and most nefarious sort of record is the grade. The teacher who likes the work of John or Jane is not allowed to say so and is not asked why, but is expected to express hermsself by the choice between an "A" and a "B", as though hesh were picking hirs preferred pickle from a tray at dinner. The registrar is not given a chance to remonstrate with this. Hesh does have to get grades out of teachers, however, in time to make up records to send to the students, to be used for transferring them to other schools, to send to disqualifying committees or scholarship boards, or otherwise to meet demands for

evidence. Did you ever try to get anything out of a faculty, be it grades or opinions? Faculties occasionally pull together on matters which arouse egos, matters which suggest improvements in pay, perquisites, or pensions, or matters which are considered to be raves over the so-called academic freedom. Registrars, knowing their faculties but having no vote, can only smile. Unless some heavy administrator permits the use of pressure, accord on grades, be it interpretation or getting them in on time, is not in the cards. But this is only one of the milder crosses borne by registrars.

The registrar, sharing a central position with administrative officials, is also required to talk the language of all schools and departments, not to mention individual members of the faculty. For instance, there is the student who was recently almost dismissed. He failed a major course flatly under a teacher who rarely dispensed such failures, and the teacher within his rights demanded no less than repetition. In official conclave, the teachers who had presented all the work of the term recommended dismissal. An official board which inspected his total performance in all terms then recommended dismissal. An official group advisory to the administration then concurred unanimously. Next, the top authority vetoed all decisions, permitting re-examination. The registrar, an expert in regulations, then went into action, calling attention to the fact that this was not permissible under the rules. These rules are made by faculties which then hand their rules to the registrar and proceed to do as they please. The academicians rave at the registrar for following rules that they themselves made. The position in which the registrar is put is clear.

Or, consider students absent from classes, seemingly a trifle. In small schools with small classes excessive absences are usually noticed, but seemingly a registrar should know that courses recorded on his books as "taken" really represent a certain amount of time and thought. That a record of a course "taken" should represent only the bamboozlement of a teacher seems foolhardy, yet registrars have no control over that for which they are responsible. Famous cases include the dog that was registered by his fraternity brothers and completed some three years of work before his identity was uncovered. Numerous cases attest to the fact that students have been credited with completion of courses in which they appeared only twice, at the beginning and at the end. These should spell trouble in the registrar's office and they do, but on what can a registrar depend?

The problems are not all on one side. A school was once in the

habit of treating in forthright fashion students who for valid reasons missed final examinations. The department got in touch with the student, gave an examination, and 'phoned or wrote on a scratch pad and sent it to the registrar. The registrar, however, had a form for it.³ Students were supposed to collect the form, pay two dollars each, collect some autographs from teachers, arrange for and take examinations, and file reports. The direct approach was unthinkable to the registrar, who was more impressed by the form than by that which it represented. The classical instance of this sort of thing, in my experience, arose when a move, reasonable and approved by everyone, encountered objections from a dean because there was no place on the card for it. The man who does not exist because he has no birth certificate furnishes another example of the small type, some of whom, impressed by pretty files, become registrars. Surrounded by hairsplitters, perhaps we can forgive registrars for occasional distortion.

IV

Having considered admission and records of progress, a word on graduation or dismissal is needed. Although these moves are not made by officers of admission or registrars, they do have a vested interest.

The plethora of words spoken at commencements leaves much still to be said on the subject of graduation, at least pointedly and off the record. The present topic fortunately limits discussion to registrars and officers of admission. The registrar, for instance, is really the person who graduates the class, although the president seems modest and official as he grants degrees in the name of some other authority, and although faculties go practically beserk if *their* special prerogative of approving of graduation seems endangered. The registrar has the records and it is hesh who furnishes the passports for graduation. Although the data came from the faculty, none of them knows anything about courses other than his own. If their black books of records were lost, most teachers would be helpless even departmentally.

The registrar is geared to accuracy in transcription but the accuracy of the data which hesh transcribes is likely to be as wide open as the Pennsylvania Turnpike. For instance, under rules designed for

³ Max S. Marshall, "There Must Be a Form for It," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, 38:543-547, 1952.

adding machines rather than persons, "probations" will always match the records; but the registrar's native wit tells him, or should, that the rule seeks only a first approximation. Students much in need of encouragement are put on probation, a discouraging experience, and students who should be thoroughly frightened or dismissed are slapped gently on the wrist by the probationary status. When probation is assigned by purported sanity or judgment instead of an adding machine, the pedagogic results are considerably improved. Although probation means "prove your worth or else," students sometimes go through school on probation, proving only that barks are much more common than bites, a dubious educational lesson for students. Members of committees pat each other on respective backs in delight over their own charity with no more sense of responsibility than a dog has at a picnic, meanwhile furnishing the registrar with wild contradictions about which hesh can do nothing. Lucky in such instances even to get a report for the record before a dean takes final action, the registrar is forced to record performance with little regard to the real status of the student. Registrars who grow gray in concern over this fail to realize that the teachers save themselves from trouble and criticism by giving "passing" grades whereas, individually hidden and protected in a committee, they are willing to say that they really think a student does not belong on the campus. The latter opinion is usually a better expression of true worth, but the recorder is stuck with the grade, a mechanical record. Some of them are overwhelmed by the consistency of the mechanized and rulebound methods, but good registrars struggle with and toward real goals.

Officers of admission at the time of graduation can be aloof, gloating with solitary pleasure over the successes of students whose admission has been disputed for four years. To officers of admission students are not leaving a hypocritical life to start a critical one; they become alumni and alumnæ to spread word of the school and to serve as foci for the great game of proselyting. Seemingly the officer of admission accepted the students, the teacher educated them, and the registrar graduated them. Actually the student furnished the interest, time, and talent which led to admission; certainly only the student can acquire his education; and for that matter the student filled out most of the cards on which the registrar based his files. To put the case thus honestly is ignoble, like so much of truth, in that it deflates. I see no reason, however, for exempting officers of admission and registrars from this form of salubrious deflation.

The functional role of officers of admission is clear, though mechanizers both in and out of the ranks are forever obfuscating real issues. Contrary to popular notions, the officer of admission does not seek patterns for ideal students; hesh wants only the best quota from the available applicants. That tricky word, "best," is a joker, but it can be met. It signifies a student whose native capacity, character, and future promise seem better than those of some other applicant. These are not easily determined; but whenever there is deviation from these simple purposes, for instance debate over whether or not four units of science are sufficient, the essence of the task is pushed aside. Whatever the method for acceptance, the officer of admission is obligated to look into the lives of applicants and, spending more time at it than anyone else, authority should go with it in high degree. The assignment is a tough one and choices are uncertain. Just as the answer cannot be an ideal student but is only a preferred student, so the officer of admission makes a preferred choice rather than an ideal one. The genuine stuffed shirts and mechanizers among officers of admission should be given other positions; more rarely, dropping an officer for lack of judicial outlook may be necessary. When there is a good case, fire the officer; but when there is not, full support is mandatory, for solid integrity in choice as well as decency and understanding are at stake.

The function of the registrar, considered with equal candor, is to record the courses actually taken, based on something more than cards of registration, and to note the actual performances in those courses. It is as simple as that; a good set of files and a passion for detail and accuracy would seem to suffice. If the figures came from loads of lumber delivered at the wharf, without the human equation, the simple outlook would be acceptable; but the data come from students and members of the faculty, as uncertain sources of data as can be imagined. Thus the registrar, rulebook in one hand, a large pill of tranquilizer in the other, and tongue in cheek, tries to co-ordinate complexity with the simple function of recording. Hesh is not permitted to reason why, for instance, a student who repeats a course with an improved record should be saddled with the record of his first poor performance. I am still angry at a registrar who refused to change my 67 in calculus made on the brink of War I to a 96 made after the war was over. Proper recording cannot compromise or select; only whole facts belong in the records.

Finally, are those with these functions and temperaments part of

the faculty or part of the administration? Some of the sanest remarks I have heard on campuses have come from some of these officials, so I am inclined to keep them with the faculty, which can stand some leavening sanity. However, Administration, spelled with a capital "A", deals with appointments, promotions, budgets, and sanctions and to deny that registrars and officers of admission are part of the administrative group is rank heresy, not to mention fatal to anyone who suggests it. I should not speak for registrars and officers of admission but I strongly suspect that each of them by choice would keep one foot in each camp, a choice safer, more tactful, and with points of strategy in its favor; but these are not principal reasons. If I am right in their choice, the preference is based on a rather clear-eyed view of their two allies, Administration and faculty. These allies are as essential to registrars and officers of admission as students are to the campus as a whole. Wisdom demands that they rest one foot on the bumptious and the other on the fatuous. On grounds of diplomacy and the Fifth Amendment I refrain from designating which is which, leaving this to the readers of the *Journal*.

Elementary and Secondary Schools Move Freedom Forward*

WAURINE WALKER

I

IN AN EDITORIAL in *Life* magazine, the noted historian Henry Steele Commager wrote: "No other people ever demanded so much of education as have the American. None other was ever served so well by its schools and educators. Our schools have kept us free."

Among all the Republics which have come into being, America remains the only one whose people have not been enticed, at one time or another, into booby traps of authoritarianism. There are those of us who like to believe that our universal system of free education has had something to do with this phenomenon.

In America, we started anew with a political format representing a dramatic and drastic departure from accepted norms of the times. We started with the thesis that every man is sovereign; that the masses are capable of self-government; that they are capable of fixing their own standards if—and this is the difference, this is unique—each is given unlimited chance at enlightenment. The doctrine of the equal chance, we call it; and the capstone of this doctrine is the equal respect accorded to varying talents and occupations and to all forms of honest labor.

In the development of this thesis, America decided against governing hierarchies of any sort as the source of well being of the masses. We decided against social, economic, intellectual, and political hierarchies. We have, and we continue to believe in, an aristocracy not of birth or position or creed, but an aristocracy of brains, demonstrated ability, and leadership that is developed through participation in the rough and tumble of American life.

As the doctrine of the equal chance developed, it became apparent that all citizens would need education in a self-governing society; therefore, free schools became a necessity. Only educated people would have the power to move freedom forward. Our elementary and secondary schools will continue to move freedom forward to the extent of their dedication to four broad and basic principles.

The first is dedication to education for all.

* An address presented at the Special Convocation of the NEA Centennial Convention, Philadelphia, July 3, 1957.

The cornerstone of our faith in freedom has been in education designed not to achieve controlled leadership by a few, but education for all according to the individual talents and needs of each. Here in America we have practically 100 per cent of the elementary age group, 90 per cent of the secondary school age group, and 40 per cent of the college age group in school. This is a total of 42 million—almost precisely one in four of our population. Elsewhere in the world, of ten who start to school, one gets to high school, and one in 500 gets to college.

Yet, despite the evidence of the creative power of our system of education, there are now serious rumblings which challenge its wisdom. We hear the possessors of distinguished names calling our free schools "glorified country clubs" and our colleges "expensive flop houses." We hear "education for all" called "education for none." We hear from a distinguished educator the statement that "the threatened inundation of college campuses by four or five million additional students by 1970 is comparable to the invasion of Western Civilization by the barbarian hordes."

We tend to forget that it is our elementary and secondary schools that are largely responsible for a national literacy rate of almost 98 per cent. We forget that business and industry demand a high school education from employees, because they have found education pays off in dollars and cents. We forget that the schools have contributed materially to the technical genius that has made ours the most productive nation in the world. We forget that our schools have helped to give us the kind of citizens who have willingly defended democracy with their lives three times within the last half century. The millions of good citizens who routinely achieve success in business and personal life are our schools' best references and speak out for the success of the principle of education for all.

Nevertheless, this we must face: a growing number of influential people in the United States are seriously doubting that our system of universal education has been a key factor in our leadership position in the world. They doubt that it has had a significant part in creating our standards of living and our wonderland of technology. If they concede any contributions to our system of education, they wonder whether a more restrictive system might not make still greater contributions.

We must also face up to the reality that many Americans are disturbed and repelled by the prospects of the educational task ahead—

the future cost, a cost that may double or triple within the next twenty-five years. Where we now have 42 million in our schools and colleges, we shall probably have 52 million in 1965 and around 64 million in 1975. Many are asking, "Can we afford the bill for education of such magnitude? Is there not a simpler, more efficient but less costly system that will still assure us our proud position in the world?"

This nation may not be willing to bear the cost in dollars; but more important, can it afford to bear the cost in human frustration and in wastage of human resources? Can we afford the educational mortality rate of 30 per cent in our high schools and 50 per cent in our colleges? Can we afford to suffer the attrition of one half of our capable high school seniors who never go to college? For the sake of preserving individual talents and meeting our manpower needs, we must do better than that.

At the White House Conference on Education the delegates were asked: "Should we try to educate everybody?" The answer of the thousand delegates came in the first sentence of their first report: "The people of the United States have inherited a commitment and have the responsibility to provide for *all* full opportunity for a free public education, regardless of physical, intellectual, social, or emotional differences or of race, creed, or religion."

A program of universal education is a social necessity, not a luxury, in a self-governing society committed to the principle of equality of opportunity. Only by providing education for all can we develop the enlightened, well-adjusted, productive, and responsible citizens who can keep freedom alive.

II

If we are to move freedom forward—we must be dedicated to the principle of education for each.

A football coach selects a system of play which enables all of his players to do their individual best. It neither penalizes the boy with special ability nor deprives the boy of more limited ability of an opportunity to contribute to the success of the team. Our system of education must be based on a similar principle.

Education for each will require some clearly defined selection. It is obvious that in the twenty-five years ahead of us colleges and universities will become more selective, and our elementary and secondary schools must prepare for this. This does not mean exclusive selection

or the adoption of the "old school tie" tenets. It means a system of selection the basic purpose of which is to discover talents of whatever types and range, and to concentrate more definitely upon nurturing these diversities. It means selection as a method of placing the individual according to his particular needs, where he can get what he needs, where he will not waste his time. This type of selection must not be designed primarily to save money, but to save time and talents. However, the selection techniques must not close the door at any point to later re-entry. There must be the second, the third, and even the fourth chance in secondary and higher education for those for whom maturity, vocational motivation, or some form of late emerging inspiration opens new doors of hope and ambition.

The G. I. Bill of Rights proved the efficacy of the late opportunity, of the second chance. Since 1945, from these young people, who without their military service would have had little hope of specialized education beyond the secondary school, came 63,000 doctors, 100,000 lawyers, 238,000 teachers, 145,000 engineers, and nearly 600,000 scientists. All told—1,400,000 professional and technical personnel that we badly needed and without whose specialized services society would be infinitely poorer today.

If we conceive of democratic education as that which attempts to serve each child according to his needs and his talents, some type of selection is needed, particularly in the secondary schools. In most of the elementary classrooms of America, youngsters are already grouped so that the gifted, the average, and the slow may each work at his own level of development. Our secondary schools need to provide more programs that give individual ability the incentive to progress as rapidly as possible. Dr. James Conant in talking about the education of our talented youth has stated, "The way lies in identifying scholastic talent early and then providing for teachers who will stimulate the selected students to do their utmost because they want to as a matter of pride." It is evident that we must bring the whole problem of selection into a larger, more meaningful perspective.

Here in America we still like the idea of having the cultural and vocational kinds of education carried on in a single, comprehensive school, so that all the youth of the community have the experience of working, living, and playing together. We have had great pride in the comprehensive high school where all of whatever talents are accorded equal respect. This concept should be continued but with an essential modification—by organizing it to deal with the individual. We must never forget, as de Kiewiet has pointed out, that there is a

dual mandate of our system of education—quality and quantity. Arbitrary selection aimed exclusively at either is inadequate and will not move freedom forward.

A recent article in *Newsweek* will illustrate the point. The director of admissions at St. Paul's School at Concord, New Hampshire, a select boys' preparatory school, submitted to his advisory board the records of a student, Spencer C. Thompson. He was seeking admission into the third form at St. Paul's. The records were accompanied by letters from the boy's teachers, all of which were adverse: the boy was stubborn, lacked leadership, was inclined to be moody and to withdraw from his classmates. Moreover, his academic record was erratic—English, 95; History, 85; Latin, 50; Mathematics, 30. The advisory board voted unanimously to reject the application; then, the director said: "Gentlemen, we begin to think, after years of experience, that we are so efficient, even infallible in our judgments. We need now and then a dose of humility. The records you have just examined and rejected are those of Winston Spencer Churchill at Harrow seventy years ago."

Through an identification and selection process each child should be given the opportunity to move ahead and absorb more knowledge and skill in the area of his particular ability, whether it be literature, history, music, art, math, science, TV repairing, or vocational agriculture.

Education for each means much more than education in a comprehensive school. It means much more than democratic selection to concentrate upon the development of the peculiar talents of each. It means the free education of the free mind. It means education which respects the right of the individual to be different. It means the right of the individual to reach for new ideas and new ways of doing things. Shaw wrote in his *Man and Superman* that agreeable men adjust themselves to the world, while disagreeable men adjust the world to themselves; therefore, the hope of progress was in disagreeable men. Progress in America has been achieved by so-called "disagreeable men" who thought in new and uncommon terms; by men who were not content with things as they were, but who dreamed of things as they might be.

One of the baffling aspects of American society today is the way the individual American is giving way to the mass mind. Fear to speak out on controversial issues seems to be growing. We even appear to be afraid to express a new idea for fear of being called an intellectual, an "egg-head." Conformity has become the badge of acceptability.

No free nation of intellectual goose-steppers can ever survive for long. Our young people need to be encouraged to think for themselves, to think in new and uncommon terms. They need to be encouraged to raise questions about the economic, social, and political issues of today's world. As a free people we must never forget that Socrates had to die not because he was wrong, but because his society could not tolerate a critic. Any society that cannot or will not tolerate diversity of thought, of customs, of mores is a society that will inevitably be the victim of dry rot.

Now, of course, there is, there must always be, a central core of values at the very heart of our free society. Every child must know and practice these values if freedom is to survive. But there must also be the inviolability of the individual, the right to think and act differently from the group. Diversity, within a central core of unity, is the life blood of a free society. Let us recognize the fact that no free society is ever finished; it is always in the process of building. Thus, education aimed at free inquiry, at critical judgments, at a search for truth is education designed to move freedom forward.

What we need in education is not the cult of the elite, the cult of the superman, nor the cult of the nothingness of the individual. Our paramount need is for an unvarying faith in the sanctity of the individual and a nurturing of his right to be different. Basically, this is a role for our elementary and secondary schools.

III

To move freedom forward, we must think of education as it relates to time in perspective to the individual life.

It is obvious that in the new miracle land of technology, Americans will consume more goods at a faster rate than ever before; but, it has been pointed out, we shall be infinitely greater consumers of time. David Sarnoff has predicted that by 1975 not labor but leisure will be the major problem. The young, the aged, and the middle-aged will have more time at their disposal than ever before.

Our young people will be enabled to stay in school for a longer period of time; in fact, they will be required to by the demand for higher, more complex skills. The man of sixty-five may expect at least fifteen years more of life. In the middle years, each person will work 20 per cent of his time, sleep 33 per cent of his time, and have 47 per cent of his time free for other pursuits. What education enables him to do with this free time is all-important. If it is to be leisure in the sense of intellectual, spiritual, aesthetic, and physical vegetation,

then it may not be the blessing for which man has longed. Instead it may be an evil, deteriorating influence that will retard rather than advance freedom.

The quality of an individual or a civilization becomes starkly apparent in the use of leisure time. If people are eager to use their time in the development and practice of creative skill, in active games, and in social activities that can unite a whole community, we can be moderately certain that their form of civilization will have a tone of vigorous optimism even under conditions of adversity. Of all the ages of life, youth is the time when energy, idealism, and interest in other people can be captured most readily for constructive purposes. It is accordingly the period when the greatest effort should be invested in the development of creative leisure and recreation.

Our elementary and secondary schools must lay the foundation for the wise use of this time. The thirst for knowledge must be translated into life-long adventure. The creative power of each—in whatever area of the arts, literature, the sciences, aesthetics—must find personal and social satisfaction. This means education must develop active participants, not passive spectators. Our elementary and secondary schools must begin now to plan for the expansion of a great American culture. The American people should become the greatest producers and consumers of books and pictures and music, the greatest performers for performance sake. This we must do to move freedom forward.

IV

To move freedom forward education must develop people who will be sensitive to membership in the human community.

In *Modern Man is Obsolete*, Norman Cousins wrote, "The dust that rose over Hiroshima settled not only upon an ended age, but upon the outmoded concepts of man as well." Our elementary and secondary schools need to look at our outmoded concepts of human relationships.

However great the appeal of the remembered serenity of yester-years, however great the appeal to withdraw from the turmoil and troubles of today's world, the clear lesson of history is that we cannot live solely within the confines of Western Culture. Already more American workers are engaged in producing goods for foreign markets than are employed in several of our major industries—including the automobile, electrical, and textile industries. Already one-eighth of the American farmer's income is derived from foreign markets. The loss of values on the New York Stock Market the day after the

Suez Canal was closed amounted to several times the cost of building the Aswan Dam.

There is more to be considered than the economic aspects. Peace itself is at stake. The cold war between freedom and regimentation is at stake. Whether we like it or not, the world will not go away and leave us alone. Whether we like it or not, we cannot exist as an island of prosperity in a sea of deprivation. Standards of life and living all over the world must go up or ours will come down.

Our elementary and secondary schools can move freedom forward by formal and informal acknowledgment of this imperative need. Informally, it can be done as we do with citizenship and freedom and moral and spiritual values. We can make sympathy and understanding and respect for other peoples of the world a part of all that happens in daily classroom activities. Formally, it can be done by the introduction and emphasis given to appropriate content.

For example, what about the need for a speaking knowledge of a foreign language? In many places, such as in schools of my own State of Texas, a foreign language is now introduced in the first grade so that it may become a part of the life of a child. The airplane is creating a condition for us, and quickly, that has been true of European people for centuries. It is bringing us to live next door to many peoples. We need a fluency in their languages, not as a cultural achievement, but as a practical matter of everyday business and living. Yet in teaching foreign languages, 98 per cent of foreign language education in our high schools and colleges ignores the languages of 70 per cent of the world's population.

Language is only one phase. The history, culture, religion, and customs of other peoples must be a more vital part of our elementary and secondary school curricula. The boys and girls who may soon be drafted or enlisted in the armed forces of the United States, those who may work or fight with the forces of other free countries under the aegis of the United Nations, should have the facts of the world situation as fully and squarely as they can be presented. More sympathy and understanding of other people's ways of thinking and living are needed by all Americans if freedom is to move forward.

V

Only one other question I would raise with you—How can these basic principles for moving freedom forward be accomplished? Since I am a teacher, you can probably anticipate my answer.

The quickest way to make certain that our schools will *not* move

freedom forward is for the American people to accept the specious doctrine that teaching can be made a cheap sort of conveyor belt operation, where youngsters can be turned out by the thousands like tomato cans off an assembly line. Belief in such a doctrine will lead us down the road to rote learning, to conformity of mind and spirit, to mechanization of the human personality. Teaching is a highly personalized matter and cannot be reduced to the assembly line process. The dynamics of education is the impact of personality, the stimulus of one mind and character upon another human being.

At the very heart of any education for freedom is a core of great teachers—competent and dedicated teachers. The American people have never given the attention to this imperative that it demands. They must do so now. The complexity of life ahead, the demands for superskills and greater knowledge make the problem of finding and keeping good teachers so important that we cannot continue to sweep it under the rug of our national conscience.

One hundred years ago, a speaker before an NEA Convention pictured the teacher at the very center of the educational enterprise designed to move freedom forward.

When, in oriental countries, those masses of moving life called caravans journey over the deserts and stop for the night, watches are stationed round about. When the very first morning light gilds the horizon, the cry is, "The morning cometh." And the cry, "The morning cometh" passes from watch to watch until the whole caravan is in motion. Thus, teachers are the appointed watchmen of the advance movement of human progress, to discover the first light of increasing knowledge, and to proclaim its advent until it reaches and moves the living masses of men.

A teacher—a place to teach—a child: these are the essential ingredients of education. The children in our elementary and secondary schools represent America's greatest resource and responsibility. The way they grow and develop, the knowledge and ability they gradually acquire, the attitudes and conduct which characterize their living are of paramount importance. These children, it is true, are not furnishing the answers to the critical problems of the moment. But it will be these children, after a few short years, who will "nobly win or meanly lose the last hope of earth."

Foreign Languages as a Graduate Study Requirement

FRANCIS J. NOCK

I

THIS TOPIC deals on the whole with a reading knowledge of one or more foreign languages as a requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The results of the survey conducted by Claude P. Viens and Philip Wadsworth ("Foreign Language Entrance and Degree Requirements for the M.A., M.S., and Ph.D. Degrees," *PMLA* for Sept. 1957, 72:4, part 2, pp. 22-32) show that foreign languages play a decidedly minor role in the obtaining of an M.A. or M.S. Other advanced degrees, notably the Doctor of Education, usually do not involve a language requirement.

In this paper I will try: (1) to give a picture of the situation, and (2) to make suggestions for change and improvement.

First, however, it must be kept firmly in mind that none of the arguments, except the vocational one, advanced for the foreign language requirement on the undergraduate level applies here. In the Winter 1957 issue of *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY* (32:2, pp. 189-203) the liberal arts aspect has been admirably dealt with by William R. Parker (the article is reprinted in *PMLA* for April, 1957, 72:2, pp. 1-12). A few of his statements—and let me insist that I do not question them in *his* article—may well be repeated here to show the difference.

"But the relevance of foreign language learning to the work of a given department or departments is quite beside the point." In connection with graduate study it is certainly the main point, for the purpose of the requirement is to give assurance that the student has a research tool available. ". . . but no subject is included among the liberal arts because it trains one directly to earn a living." Here a research tool is definitely connected with earning a living.

If, for example, liberal education means broadening and training the mind by pursuing knowledge for its own sake, it should not be forgotten that mind-training is largely *verbal training*—and most "experts" in the liberal arts have signified their conviction that a single language just does not provide a sufficient range of verbal per-

ceptiveness for a liberally educated person. Such a person, let us say, should be logical; but what is the validity of any "logic" *based on language patterns* that do not have universal validity? Ask the best of our scientists. It would seem that learning a foreign language is a "liberalizing" experience because, among other things, it teaches the limitations which the speech patterns of any single language impose upon individual thinking processes or even upon national attitudes and assumptions.

In the answers to a questionnaire, of which I will have more to say later, a few people indicated that they felt that anyone attaining the cultural position represented by a Ph.D. should know at least one foreign language. This might well be an argument for requiring knowledge of a language for *entrance* to a graduate college. I do not see that it is an argument for the pursuit of a foreign language *during* graduate study. If I am wrong, then certainly the requirement as universally found should be made much broader and deeper. The same applies to the last quotation I will give: "The person who has never comprehended, spoken, read, or written a language other than his mother tongue has little or no perspective of his own language . . . and, more important, he has never penetrated the rich areas of learning and experience lying beyond monolingual communication."

The validity of a foreign language requirement for an advanced degree is based mainly, if not solely, on the fact that a foreign language is a necessary research tool. It follows from this that a graduate student should be required to show a knowledge of that language or of those languages which are useful to him in the pursuit of his subject. Often the claim is made that no foreign language is necessary. This, perhaps, involves an interpretation of "necessary." But the answers to the questionnaire previously mentioned indicate that a knowledge of a foreign language is almost invariably beneficial to a student in his work, even if he can get along without it.

II

In the March, 1951, issue of *The German Quarterly* (24:1, pp. 109-113) Sara Elizabeth Piel of the Carnegie Institute of Technology published the results of her study of foreign language requirements for the Ph.D. She based this on a questionnaire sent to seven polytechnic schools and 64 large universities (none named in the article). Of these, 65 required French and German or a pertinent substitute or "two modern languages." One required German only

and five made the choice of language optional with the student's major department.

Today the situation is approximately the same. The summary totals for 121 institutions granting the Ph.D. can be found in the article by Mr. Viens and Mr. Wadsworth (p. 31). Of these institutions three reported that not all departments had the foreign language requirement for the Ph.D., 92 had a uniform foreign language degree requirement in all departments, and 26 had a foreign language degree requirement in all departments that was not always the same. Of the 118 institutions with a requirement for all departments 24 required French and German, 27 required French *or* German plus another foreign language, 28 required French *and* German with alternatives possible, 19 required two unspecified foreign languages, and 29 permitted substitutions of other work (e.g., statistics) for one foreign language. In a survey of 60 graduate college catalogues that I made before I knew of the article by Mr. Viens and Mr. Wadsworth I found four institutions that required only one foreign language. Two others required reading knowledge of two foreign languages or "a thorough reading knowledge [without dictionary] of one."

In 1950, 1951, 1955, 1956, and 1957 a conference group has met at the Modern Language Association (MLA) meetings to discuss: "Problems in the Teaching and Testing of the Reading Knowledge of Foreign Languages Required of Doctoral Candidates." After the 1956 meeting Paul Bowerman of the California Institute of Technology sent a questionnaire to 32 institutions. From the answers to this it is clear that: (1) the language departments administer the examinations in the big majority of cases, (2) written examinations are almost always given, (3) the use of a dictionary is permitted in the majority of cases, and on part of the examination in others, (4) in the minority of cases the requirements may be fulfilled by course work, (5) there is no agreement on accepting certification from another institution (11 do it generally, 12 never, and 8 sometimes). The survey by Mr. Viens and Mr. Wadsworth supports the first four of these items; they did not discuss the point in item five.

Last spring I made another type of survey, limited to the University of Illinois. I sent a questionnaire to the head of every department (except French and German) or group offering work leading to the Ph.D. There were 43 in all.

The first item was: "Is it impossible for an individual to go far in

your field without knowledge of one or more modern foreign languages?" To this 18 answered "yes" and 25 "no." It might be of interest to list the departments, but it must be remembered that the position of each department reflects the answer of one individual only.

The answer "yes" came from:

Ceramic Engineering	Library Science
Chemistry	Mathematics
Classics	Musicology
Economics	Physico-Chemical Biology
English	Physics
Entomology	Physiology
Geography	Spanish
Geology	Theoretical and Applied Me-
History	chanics
	Zoology

"No" came from:

Accountancy	Horticulture
Aeronautical Engineering	Mass Communications
Agricultural Economics	Mechanical Engineering
Agronomy	Mining and Metallurgical En-
Animal Science	gineering
Bacteriology	Philosophy
Botany	Physical Education
Business	Plant Pathology
Civil Engineering	Political Science
Dairy Science	Psychology
Education	Sociology and Anthropology
Electrical Engineering	Speech
Food Technology	Veterinary Pathology and Hy-
	giene

The picture is considerably different with the second question: "Is such a knowledge at least helpful?" Here 39 answered "yes," three (which had answered "yes" to the first question) did not answer, and only Business answered "no."

To the third question: "Are French, German, and Russian the three most important languages?" 38 answered "yes," but five would omit Russian and one would omit French, and five answered "no."

The fourth question: "Are any other languages advisable?" was answered affirmatively by 24, negatively by 15, and left blank by four.

Twenty-five departments replied to item five: "If the answer is

'yes,' what languages?" The languages mentioned and the number of departments mentioning them are:

Spanish 16	Dutch 2	Neo-Latin 1
Italian 12	Danish 2	Modern Greek 1
Latin 6	Greek 2	Swedish 1
Portuguese 4	Scandinavian 2	Oriental 1
Japanese 3	Russian 1	

Fewer departments can rely on translations and abstracts than can not. The sixth question: "In your field, is practically everything written in a foreign language available either in English translation or adequate abstract?" was answered by 17 with "yes" and by 26 with "no."

The last two questions were: "Do you believe that a reputable graduate school or graduate college should have a modern foreign language reading requirement for all of its Ph.D. candidates?" and "If the answer is 'yes,' what languages should be required?" The voting was 35 to 8 in favor of such a requirement. Thirty-four answers were given to the last, with eleven favoring a one-language requirement. Thirty-two mentioned German, 29 mentioned French, 16 mentioned Russian; in the case of each of the three languages it was sometimes suggested as an alternative, e.g. "German or Russian." Spanish was mentioned twice, and no other language at all.

III

It is obvious that a foreign language requirement is here, and, for a while at least, here to stay. Furthermore, the requirement seems to be based on something more than the mere desire to set an additional hurdle in the way of the student hurrying toward his Ph.D. What this means practically may be exemplified by the University of Illinois. When I came to Illinois in 1948 the reading examination in German (and French) was given four times a year. It was made of material supplied by the student's major department and the answer papers were graded as a labor of love by the German (and French) department. Now the examination is given five times a year. For the past year a student, with the consent of his major department, has been permitted to satisfy the two language requirements in course, in special reading classes intended for him. Beginning with the fall of 1957, furthermore, an examiner will do the work that the department has done in the past.

From the fall of 1948 to the end of the spring semester 1957 (hence nine years except for an examination offered in the summer of 1957) the German department has graded 4518 papers. Since approximately 70 per cent of the students pass at any given time, this figure includes first and second time repeaters (a third repetition is not permitted). It probably represents at least 3000 students.

I kept figures for the first six years of this time, showing which departments and divisions were represented and to what extent. Students from the various departments of the College of Agriculture, of the College of Engineering (including physics), of the College of Commerce, from chemistry, from the biological sciences, from psychology, and from English constitute the (by far) largest groups. Chemistry, the biological sciences, psychology, English, and, in some institutions, physics are departments of the Liberal Arts College at the undergraduate level, and many of their majors have studied one or more foreign languages. In fact, although chemistry students constitute the biggest single group every time the examination is offered at Illinois, they do not flock in large numbers to the classes for Ph.D. candidates offered by the German department. For example, during the year 1953-54 there were 79 chemistry students who took the reading examination, but only 13 enrolled in German classes. The explanation is simple: the American Chemical Society and others insist strongly on foreign language study (especially German) by the undergraduate majors in chemistry.

But at the University of Illinois and in many other colleges and universities there is no undergraduate modern language requirement for a student in agriculture, engineering, and commerce, although a few curricula may have such a requirement. Unless the value of the Ph.D. degree and the desire to obtain it decrease materially, and it does not seem likely, an extremely large number of students is going to enter graduate school each year and then have to start learning one or two foreign languages.

IV

This brings us to the matter of changes and improvements. Here a division can be made between those dealing with the administration of the requirement and those dealing with preparation for its fulfillment. The article by Miss Piel and the surveys by Mr. Bowerman and by Mr. Viens and Mr. Wadsworth alone give ample evidence that the

requirement is administered in a variety of ways: furthermore Miss Piel's article shows that at different institutions there is a great variety in what is expected. Both of these situations are inevitable with some institutions clamoring for graduate students and others trying to enforce a selective policy to avoid overcrowding.

One of the main purposes, if not the main purpose, of the MLA conference group is to agree upon some principles of standardization. With attendance limited to 35 by MLA regulation it is not possible to have representation from all the major universities and technical schools. However, if nothing else is accomplished it is to be hoped that some agreement can be reached on what is to be expected of the student, i.e., of what difficulty the testing material is to be, how much is to be done in a certain length of time, if the use of a dictionary is to be permitted for any or all of it. This could, if successful, prevent the often heard cry that at institution A the language requirement for the Ph.D. is a farce, while at B it is extremely tough. I doubt that many students avoid an institution because this requirement is high-level, or rush to another one because it is easy. The chief virtue in such standardization, it seems to me, would lie in improving the preparation of students at institutions where the language requirement tends to be nominal and in the fact that a student would be able to get a good idea of what is expected of him.

More important is the question of what languages are to constitute the requirement, and how many. Since no one can learn everything, it is out of the question for a student to learn every language that might be useful to him. The requirement of two is certainly maximum, and a great deal can be said for the requirement of only one—provided that it be raised considerably. I know from first-hand experience how many students bone up for the German examination at Illinois, barely pass it, and then promptly start to forget all they ever knew about the language.

For this reason I feel that satisfying the requirement in a reading course should be generally permitted. I would like to emphasize that the course should be one set up for the purpose, and not an undergraduate course. A student who has passed such a course successfully has had at least four months of continuous association with the language after he has passed the elementary stage. He may not have read exclusively in his own field, but he has met again and again the problems that confront him in the language regardless of subject matter.

The cumulative and permanent effect is far greater than that obtained by a student who bones up quickly and barely passes the examination.

At Illinois this course was, until the summer of 1956, merely one to help the students get ready for the examination. An analysis of results achieved from 1948-54 showed: (1) that the students, including the repeaters, who tried the reading examination in German had in general approximately a 70 per cent chance of passing; (2) that a student receiving the grade of *A* or *B* in German 401 (the continuation, reading course) had a better than 90 per cent chance of passing the examination *the first time he tried it*. The same held true for French. When this became clear, the requirement was changed to allow fulfillment in course.

The requirement of one or two languages, not specified, that are appropriate to the student's work seems to be the best solution. It brings about one difficulty, however. If the student's work involves some of the less widely studied languages, such as Thai or the language of the Caribs, most institutions will be unable to provide an examiner. Still, this difficulty is preferable to requiring a student to study a language for which he has absolutely no use while neglecting one he might use every day.

V

I have left until last the most important item of all. The preparation for fulfilling the requirement should not be left until the time of graduate study. Administrators and department heads frequently say, "We have no room in our undergraduate curricula for foreign language study." Still, more and more graduates in these curricula go on to further study, more and more trying to obtain the Ph.D. degree. The day is long gone when a Ph.D. candidate was a Liberal Arts graduate who naturally had had a sound training in one or more foreign languages.

It is a little out of line to deny the student opportunity to learn a foreign language when he is an undergraduate and supposedly getting a well-rounded education, then to force him to learn it when he is supposed to be specializing. If, however, it is simply out of the question to make room for a foreign language in an undergraduate curriculum, then the sensible thing to do is to insist on the study where it belongs anyhow, in the high school; to insist upon it as an entrance requirement.

Finally there is the item of advising the undergraduate. More and more undergraduates know that they will go on with graduate work if it is possible. That many of them will not make it is no reason for not giving them and the successful ones the best advice possible. Here the insurmountable obstacle is all too often the freshman adviser, an individual who is bored with his task—since he is usually drafted for it at registration time—is at intervals overwhelmed by a long line of freshmen, and is happy and satisfied if he has approved programs that fulfill the college requirements. If the college or the curriculum requires an unspecified language, he is happy if the youngster has decided which one he wants to study instead of producing a long argument against his having to study a language at all.

It is not for me to say how it is to be accomplished, but every undergraduate should be questioned at his first registration and again at the start of his second year. His adviser should ascertain if he hopes to go on with graduate study. If he does, he should be told to learn not only the rudiments of two foreign languages, but of those which will be of most value to him in his graduate work. Then it is the duty of the language departments to see that he is trained to read material in those languages which is as difficult as he is likely to encounter when using them as tools in his research. This does not mean new courses, nor turning a liberal arts subject into a vocational one, but simply that somewhere along the line the student be confronted with such material, that the grammatical and syntactical difficulties be explained and practiced, and that this go on for sufficient time for it to penetrate and take hold in the student's mind.

Selective Admission of Air Force Academy Cadets

VIRGIL J. O'CONNOR

UNTIL ADOPTION of the Air Force Academy Act in 1954 "competitive examination," as a term or an idea, had not been used in legislation concerning service academy appointments since the Civil War. The action of the Civil War Congress to authorize Military Academy appointments by examination was short-lived; the succeeding session of Congress repealed the statute before it went into effect.

The Air Force Academy Act provided for competitive selection of Air Force Cadets at least during the initial four years of the Academy. The Act specifies "a competitive examination which shall be held annually" and prescribes that "appointments from each state shall be made from among qualified candidates nominated from that State in the order of merit established by the examinations." The obligation to devise and apply a truly rigorous selection system was not unprecedented. The resulting system is not unprecedented, but it may be of interest to the many who are becoming more and more involved in selective admissions.

Without further preliminaries, here in tabulated form are the eligibility requirements and the qualification and selection measures which determine who are offered Air Force Cadet appointments. Those of you who have student admissions functions will understand why specific score qualification levels and weights of selection measures are not given. Such scores and weights are fixed and allow no exceptions for each annual cycle of applications and admissions; however, experience and refinements do bring changes from year to year.

ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS

Age: 17 years and not over 21 years.

Height and Weight: At least 64 inches and not over 76 inches with weight proportionate to height.

Health: Medically fit for flying training.

Citizenship: Male citizen of the United States.

Marital status: unmarried.

Sponsorship: Candidacy designated by member of Congress or other specified government official, or by identification with a military service relationship.

MEASURES OF QUALIFICATION AND SELECTION

<i>Measures</i>	<i>Used in Qualification</i>	<i>Used in Selection</i>
College Entrance Examination Board Tests		
SAT (verbal)	X	X
SAT (quantitative)	X	X
English Composition	X	X
Intermediate Mathematics	X	X
High School Graduation Rank		X
USAF Officer Qualifying Test	X	X
USAF Physical Aptitude Test	X	X
Activities Index		X
Aptitude for Commissioned Service		X
Selection Composite (weighted sum of all the above)		X

ELIGIBILITY

Eligibility requirements are predetermined by statute and the demands of flying training. Only the more rigid medical standards and the limits of height and weight are different from eligibility requirements for appointment to the other service academies. Although pilot training is not a part of the Air Force Academy instruction, every graduate is expected to enter pilot training. Maximum height and weight limits are due to the restrictions of aircraft cockpit space.

In addition to personal eligibility, there are certain prerequisites of candidate sponsorship and competition eligibility. The Academy Act specifies that 85 per cent of all cadet appointments will be allotted to the 48 States in proportion to congressional representation. To be eligible to participate in a State competition an applicant must attain official candidate status through a member of Congress from the State. Each member of Congress is authorized to name only ten candidates. The remaining 15 per cent of appointments are allocated to competitions for residents of Hawaii, Alaska, Puerto Rico, the Canal Zone, and the District of Columbia, and to competitions restricted to nominees of the Vice-President, regular and reserve members of the Army and Air Force, sons of regular members of the armed services (the Presidential Competition), and sons of deceased veterans.

SELECTION OBJECTIVES

"Appointments . . . shall be made from among qualified candidates . . . in order of merit established by the examination." Qualified

for what? In order of merit on what examination or combinations of examinations? It was a rather blank prescription for competitive selection of cadets. The lack of criterion data—no graduates, no students, successful or otherwise—was not such a handicap as it would seem. Thanks to College Entrance Examination Board test development and Air Force personnel selection research, there were good answers to the questions.

The selection system has been designed to obtain those young men who can best accomplish three rather independent objectives of instruction: academic achievement, skill as an aerial navigator and pilot, and demonstration of effective leadership abilities.

PREDICTION OF ACADEMIC SUCCESS

The Academy academic curriculum is not greatly different from a science-oriented liberal arts program. So, like admissions officers of over 180 colleges and universities, we predict academic achievement (and thereby compare candidates) largely by use of aptitude and achievement measures developed and provided by the College Entrance Examination Board. Each candidate must take the Scholastic Aptitude Test and the achievement tests in English Composition and Intermediate or Advanced Mathematics.

Following the established college admissions practice, secondary school achievement was initially given a comparatively high weight among academic achievement predictors. It did not prove worth that weight. The variety of schools and sections of the country represented by Academy cadets apparently reduces the comparability of previous school records. For prediction of first year grade average, we have found that secondary school academic rank has an independent effect only a little more than one-fourth that of the combined College Board measures. The revised weighting of College Board measures and secondary school achievement in the selection composite has resulted in a multiple correlation of .69 with academic course average at the end of the freshman year.

In order to narrow the field of selection and to assure minimum prerequisites for freshman courses, qualification score levels were established for the College Board examinations as well as the Air Force examinations. Due to the lack of cadet achievement data, qualification levels were initially set at an arbitrary one standard deviation below the mean score obtained by men who were accepted by colleges which used College Board test scores for admission in

1952. In other words, the Academy excluded from consideration any candidate who could not score above the 16th percentile on a distribution of scores obtained by men admitted to a rather large and representative group of engineering and liberal arts colleges. Cutoff scores have since been modified by cadet attrition experience. The principal change, however, has been to limit the number of qualifying hurdles. For example, qualification scores are now set for the average of verbal aptitude and English composition and for the average of quantitative aptitude and intermediate mathematics.

Strict application of qualification requirements is given much credit for the low rate of academic failures. Freshman losses for academic failure have totalled no more than four per cent of each entering class.

PREDICTION OF FLYING TRAINING SUCCESS

Air Force policy demands that each selected cadet have a high probability of success in completing the navigation training given during the four-year academy course and the pilot training to be given after graduation. Use of aircrew aptitude measures developed during World War II and refined in what is now known as the Air Force Officer Qualifying Test have provided an unusually good estimate of that probability. Validation of Officer Qualifying Test scores for thousands of aviation cadets against success or failure in pilot training shows a correlation coefficient of .65. Prediction of success or failure can be made for individual score levels. Experience shows that 96 per cent of all individuals with scores in the upper 4 per cent of the distribution will complete pilot training. Of all applicants with scores in the lowest 4 per cent of distribution, 77 per cent will fail to complete the pilot training course. The score established as a qualifying level on the Officer Qualifying Test assures us that at least 70 per cent of entering cadets will be able to complete pilot training. The Officer Qualifying Test score is also weighted in the selection composite; for research evidence has demonstrated that individuals with high Officer Qualifying Test scores obtain better positions, develop higher efficiency in combat, have fewer aircraft accidents, and in general, are superior in a wide range of skills and duties.

PREDICTION OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

The lack of practical selection measures to predict leadership development was a most serious difficulty. Experience of others in

applying practical measures of leadership aptitude was limited. Academic aptitude and achievement have not demonstrated a high level of relation to criteria of officer effectiveness used by the military services. Measures which were initially adopted had little research or experience behind them. However, we can now confidently report that we are at least able to predict leadership achievement as it is measured at the Academy.

Following the practice of most college admissions officers we obtained a detailed record of each candidate's extracurricular activities in secondary school. A complex scoring system was developed and scaled as an Activities Index in units comparable to the other measures of the candidate. The initial system of scoring extracurricular activities allowed variable points for every recorded type of out-of-class activity—holding of elective office, athletic squad membership, letter winning, honors in scholarship and for other achievements, music, speech, and journalistic activities, and membership in high school or other youth organizations. Awarded points varied according to a rather intuitive evaluation of the quality of leadership required or developed by the activity.

The Activities Index has been refined considerably by analysis of its relationship to a measure of leadership achievement among cadets. As do the cadets and midshipmen of West Point and Annapolis, cadets of each squadron in the Air Force Academy Cadet Wing rate each other periodically on a carefully defined scale called "Aptitude for Commissioned Service." Close and continuous association of cadets with each other in all activities in or out of the classroom gives cadet peer ratings a high reliability. The measure as made at West Point has been correlated with later ratings of combat leadership with resulting coefficients ranging around .50 for several groups of officers involved. The cadet peer rating of Aptitude for Commissioned Service has therefore become our intermediate criterion of leadership against which to validate selection measures.

Refinement of the Activities Index has been accomplished largely by elimination of items. It has become obvious for instance, that those who do no more than "join" are hardly on the same continuum of leadership ability with those who achieve elective office, athletic letters, or other honors. In fact, point awards for membership only are found to be negatively related to later cadet ratings.

The Physical Aptitude Examination, a composite of strength, agility, and co-ordination exercises, was adopted mainly to identify

candidates who are grossly inept at physical activity. The high relationship with physical training grades has warranted inclusion of the Physical Aptitude Examination in the selection composite with a weight comparable to the relative value of physical training semester hour credits in the academy curriculum. While not at a highly predictive level, the correlation with cadet peer ratings is usefully significant.

Relationship of College Board test scores to cadet peer ratings is on the negative side but not significantly so in the statistical sense. Secondary school achievement is directly related but also not at a significant level. Only the Activities Index, the Physical Aptitude Examination score, and the special "Aptitude for Commissioned Service" evaluation of candidates by the Selection Board have useful predictive relationship to the cadet peer ratings.

The special rating given candidates by the Selection Board will be described later.

ORDER OF MERIT

As indicated earlier the Air Force is obligated by statute to fill appointment vacancies allotted each of the 48 States and the 10 other competitions in "order of merit." "Merit" has been identified as a composite score derived from a battery of selection measures predictive of cadet achievement. A candidate wins appointment, therefore, if the final composite value of weighted scores on the several selection measures ranks him on the competition roster within range of the vacancies to be filled. The New York competition, for example, is allotted 33 of the 448 total of appointment vacancies for the 1958 competitions. Of the total candidates who will be nominated by the 45 members of Congress from New York, the 33 who will be offered appointments will be the 33 ranking highest on the selection composite.

If there were a single measurable criterion of cadet success, it would be mathematically possible to determine exact weights to be given selection measures in arriving at a composite mean score that would have maximum relation to the criterion. Because the three objectives of cadet education—academic achievement, flying skill, and leadership development—are rather independent of each other, we have no hope of defining a single or even an acceptable composite criterion. The weighting of selection measures must depend partly upon judgment.

It is only within the area of each educational objective that we can determine optimum weights by statistical procedures. Even the statistically developed weights may need adjustment by some exercise of judgment if the basic data do not represent an ultimate criterion. For those who may be interested, here is a breakdown of the relative weights among the academic measures in the selection composite used for the 1957 competitions.

SAT (verbal)	28%
SAT (quantitative)	18%
English Composition	8%
Intermediate Math	18%
High School Graduation Rank	28%

The Officer Qualifying Test, the Physical Aptitude Examination, and the Activities Index were weighted in proportions that represented a best estimate of the relative importance of the associated cadet achievement areas.

The Selection Board rating of "Aptitude for Commissioned Service" is given an additive weight in the selection composite for two purposes: to increase the relationship of the composite to measures of leadership achievement, and to provide better discrimination among candidates. Let me explain. A mechanical system of selection which would depend entirely upon the weighted mean of a group of objective measures does not always deserve the trust and confidence that we would like to give it. We have provided a safeguard against the arbitrariness of tabulating machines. While it is completely impractical and generally believed unreliable to use personal interviews of 6000 candidates, we do recognize the need for looking at much more than examination scores. The Selection Board does have the means of accounting for more than examination scores.

As you may expect, we find that the composite mean of the examination measures, the "examination composite," does not adequately discriminate at a point in the selection roster where a line must be drawn between selectees and alternates. The measures even in combination are not accurate enough to base selection on a difference of a few score points. The Academy Selection Board has wisely added a measure of judgment, a rating of each candidate on Aptitude for Commissioned Service made by at least three senior officers. The rating is based upon a complete review of all available data on the candidate: his personal statement of reasons for seeking an Academy

appointment, recommendations of the school principal and teachers, degree of motivation indicated by previous school records, outstanding achievements, anything that may be a clue to personality.

The Selection Board rating is made on the same scale as that which is used for the measures included in the examination composite. Then one-tenth of the rating is added to the examination composite. Final rank on the selection roster for each competition is based upon the extended composite, the "selection composite." The restriction to an additive one-tenth of the Selection Board rating precludes any effect on the winning or losing position of the top ranking and the low ranking candidates in the order of merit on the examination composite. It does provide for proper discrimination at the mode of the examination composite score distribution. It does distinguish fairly between the lowest ranking selectee and the highest ranking alternate in each competition. Selection Board ratings have demonstrated a significant relationship to later cadet peer ratings and have provided a measure of motivation which is lacking in the other selection measures.

As many will realize, there have been a number of technical problems slighted in this report. The development of forms, scoring systems, and scale transformations, and the handling of variations in score distributions and the resulting differences of score spread have only been mentioned in passing. All has not been as uncomplicated as this short summary may imply.

RESULTS

The medical examinations and the qualification score levels established for various selection measures narrow the field of candidates with considerable effect. The experience of three years shows that of approximately 6000 candidates who may be nominated to participate in competitions each year—

30.5% or 1830 will be medically ineligible

15% or 900 will withdraw from the competitions

15.5% or 930 will be disqualified for minimum flying training aptitude

19% or 1140 will not meet College Board Test minimums

1.5% or 90 will not meet physical aptitude minimums

18.5% or 1110 will be fully qualified for consideration in the competitions.

The opportunity for competitive selection authorized for the initial four years of the Air Force Academy has already provided

three highly selected classes of Air Force Cadets. We can never know whether a better job of selection could have been accomplished. We do know that all three classes have averaged higher on comparable selection measures, the College Board tests, than did the average engineering school freshman admitted in 1954 to the eleven highly respected colleges and universities for which the College Entrance Examination Board has reported data. There is considerable satisfaction also in the results of standardized tests given to measure achievement in certain Academy courses at the end of the freshman year. For all achievement examinations given, for Freshman English, for American History, and for Chemistry, freshman cadets have averaged above the 75th percentile point on the college freshman norm. Whether those results validate the selection process or the instruction process is a moot point which the Admissions Office will be happy not to settle.

A research program undertaken in 1955 to develop much needed practical measures of motivation and other personality characteristics affecting cadet success will eventually deserve a separate report. Like college applicants and students everywhere, Air Force Academy candidates and cadets take tests and answer many questions which have no immediate application, but have value in future refinement of the process of selection and admission. Developments to date, while interesting and promising, are only in the tryout and validation stage.

The generous action of the Congress in providing an initial period of competitive selection of cadets has enabled collection of data that will still serve well when in 1959, as the statute provides, the system of Congressional designation of "principal" candidates becomes applicable to the Air Force Academy. Selection of 15 per cent of the entering classes of over 700 cadets will remain competitive. And Congressional "principals" must nevertheless meet qualification requirements. With the data at hand and yet to be collected, the Academy can be more precise in determining that level of qualification which assures both the member of Congress and the prospective cadet that chance of failure will be minimized.

Exploration of the Residence Problem

LOWELL B. HOWARD

ONE OF THE MORE perplexing problems faced by the administrator of a tax-supported institution of higher education is the matter of determining the residence of a student for the purpose of fixing fees and tuition. The problem has become more acute in recent years because of the greater mobility of our people and the pattern of shifting population. The tuition and other charges made to students of a college or university ordinarily depend on the contract of the parties and applicable statutory and constitutional provisions. The prevalent practice among state universities and colleges is to permit residents of the state where the institution is located to benefit from a reduced tuition charge and to charge nonresident undergraduates what is commonly called a nonresident fee. This practice is usually followed by municipal colleges and universities, and the discussion which follows is applicable to such tax-supported institutions. A few institutions make no charge to residents while others assess a rather nominal fee to cover certain incidental expenses, such as laboratory materials. Most schools do not impose nonresident fees against graduate students who have matriculated with the support of a graduate assistantship, fellowship, or other aid in recognition of superior scholarship. This can be explained by the desire to attract outstanding scholars to the campus for study, which usually results in a *quid pro quo* to the school for the waiving of the nonresident fee. The writer has not discovered that this policy has been extended to undergraduate scholarship holders. However, it is interesting to note that Oregon exempts residents of Alaska and Hawaii, as well as its own residents, from the nonresident fee.

RELEVANT FACTORS

A list of those factors often considered in determining the legal residence or domicile of a person would include the following: age, secondary school attended, marital status, citizenship, location, address, declarations, exercise of political rights, payment of taxes, ownership of property, group affiliations, membership in the armed forces, and other incidental evidence of residence.

While domicile and residence are frequently used synonymously,

they are not, in precise usage, convertible terms; domicile is a larger term, of more extensive signification, while residence is of a more temporary character. One may have his residence in one place while his domicile is in another, and may have more than one residence at the same time, but only one domicile. However, the writer will not indulge in any legalistic distinction of these terms, because it is customary among university and college administrators to use the term *residence* exclusively to express what the lawyer and jurist would prefer to designate *domicile*. Also, it is not expected that the question of a student's residence for fee-fixing purposes will be litigated in a court of law, but, rather, will be resolved within the confines of the campus.

Now for a closer look at the factors used to determine the place of residence of the student. First, we will take the case of a minor. The age of majority is fixed by statute in most states at 21 years. For some unexplained reason certain schools do not consider a student an adult until he reaches the age of 22 years. The residence of a minor ordinarily follows that of the father, during the latter's lifetime; but where the parents are legally separated or divorced and the custody of the child is awarded to the mother, or where the father has died, the mother's residence determines the child's residence. A minor ward's residence ordinarily follows that of the guardian. The fact that a minor may be emancipated does not seem to be taken into consideration. It may be desirable to apply the adult rules to an emancipated minor, but it would first be necessary to work out a system of rules for recognizing such a status.

The residence of a student who is of full age may be determined without resort to an inquiry as to the residence status of the parents or those persons standing *in loco parentis* to such student. The rule with respect to an adult student typically provides that he shall be considered a resident if he has maintained residence within the state for at least twelve consecutive months next preceding his registration, provided such residence has not been acquired while attending any school or college within the state. However, if the adult student is unable to qualify as a resident under the above rule he may be classified as such if his parents have resided in the state for the required time (or so resided at the time of their death), provided the student has not acquired residence in another state.

If the student is a graduate of a secondary school located in the state this provides evidence of residence within the state, but it is not

conclusive. It still becomes necessary to examine the other indicia of residency and to take account of the minority of the applicant if such be the case. Also, the fact that an applicant was graduated from an out-of-state secondary school should not be conclusive of non-residency. However, this fact should establish a *prima facie* case of nonresidency which could be rebutted by sufficient evidence to the contrary. The sending of students out of the state by resident parents to private preparatory schools is not an uncommon practice. In such cases the residence of the minor student would remain that of the parents back in the home state.

The marriage of a male student has no effect on his residence. However, it is a well-settled rule that the residence of a wife is that of her husband. Thus a nonresident female student may attain residence at once through marriage to a resident, and correspondingly, a resident female student may lose residence by marrying a nonresident; and such student would be required to pay the nonresident fee for all terms of school subsequent to her marriage. Appropriate documentary proof, such as a certificate of marriage, should be required as proof of the marital status.

The lack of United States citizenship should not preclude a student from qualifying as a resident under the rules described herein. The typical rule concerning aliens provides that an alien who has taken out his first citizenship papers and has otherwise met the requirements for residence shall be considered a resident. Admission officers will be alerted to such cases by the applicant's listing of a foreign place of birth in his application.

The location of a student at a moment of time clearly does not suggest the place of residence. The address of the student does offer a suggestion as to his residence but should be given probative importance only and never should be considered conclusive.

Declarations of one whose residence is in dispute may be considered unless made for the purpose of creating evidence of residence. Although oral declarations would be of little assistance, written declarations, whether contained in letters, in the recitals of deeds or wills, or in other instruments such as hotel registers, may be considered by those charged with rendering a decision in the matter.

The local exercise of political rights is competent evidence of residence and the official records of election officers showing where a person registered or voted should be admitted as evidence of residence. The payment of taxes in a locality, such as a tax on a dwelling,

should be taken into consideration as an evidentiary fact. Another factor to be considered in the determination of residence, although again it is not decisive, is the ownership or lease of real property, when coupled with either actual or intended residence therein by the person in question. At least one state, Michigan, provides that students whose parents are not legal residents of the state but who own real estate assessed on the tax rolls for more than a certain value may be exempted from the nonresident fee. To support such an exemption it is required that the student present a statement from the clerk of the county in which the property is situated showing the assessed value. The same exemption could be applied to a student who owns such property in his own right. However, it is to be noted that such ownership of property within the state does not make the owner a legal resident of the state but simply exempts the student from the nonresident fee. Also the ownership of a burial lot may be taken into account, and the selection of a place of burial for a family is significant but should be given only slight consideration.

Membership in local lodges, clubs, or churches may be considered along with the fact of obtaining automobile, hunting, fishing, or other licenses in the state. While none of these many factors alone are determinative of the issue it would appear that all should be viewed as operative facts in questionable cases.

Several institutions provide that a member of the armed forces on active duty within the state may receive an exemption from the nonresident fee without regard to the length of time such student shall have been stationed on active duty within the state. This exemption where it prevails is often extended to include the spouse and children of the service member. The military exemption is in the opinion of the writer a salutary one but it probably should not be extended to cover adult children or other members of the household of the military person. Also, the exemption should apply only for the period of active military or naval service within the state. However, the length of residence within the state may be sufficient along with the existence of other relevant factors to establish residence under the rules described above.

PROCEDURE

The residence status of a student should be determined at the time of his first registration so that, if at all possible, any question-

able cases can be resolved prior to the completion of registration and the payment of fees.

The burden of registering under the proper residence should be placed on the student. If there is any possible question as to his legal residence the matter should be brought to the attention of the administrative officers having jurisdiction over such matters. In most cases the officer concerned will be the registrar or the director of admissions. In addition a standing committee on fees or an *ad hoc* committee may be called on to rule on such cases.

The burden of proof should rest with the student, and to develop a foundation of facts upon which to rest a decision it may be helpful to require the student to submit a sworn statement. Also, it may be necessary to hold an informal hearing in unusual cases.

The University of Rhode Island has a unique procedure for meeting the problem herein discussed by using the following system. The applicant claiming exemption from tuition is required to present a statement from the clerk of the city or town in which the applicant claims residence certifying to the fact that the parent (or legal guardian) of the applicant is a legal resident of said city or town in the state of Rhode Island. If the applicant is over 21 years of age, he must furnish a certified statement that he has been a resident of the state at least one year prior to his first registration. To all accepted applicants giving an address in the state, the director of admissions forwards the blank for such a certified statement. If the statement is not presented to the director of admissions before registration day, payment of tuition is required.

The certificate method is fairly easy to administer in that it is largely mechanical, but it would seem to be too inflexible to take care of unusual cases mentioned above. Also, it ignores many of the factors relevant to residence. The mere fact of having lived in the state for a period of time, even years, does not conclusively establish residency. The opportunity for circumvention of the residence requirement would seem to be great under such a procedure.

Any person claiming the military exemption should be required to submit at each registration a certified statement from the registrant's commanding officer certifying to the fact of his military status.

A deterrent to incorrect registration with reference to residence is a regulation which provides for a penalty to be assessed and dismissal from the college or university if the penalty is not paid within a stipulated period of time.

CONCLUSION

An examination of the bulletins of a number of the tax-supported universities and colleges reveals that the attention given to the residence question varies greatly throughout the country. Some institutions attempt to state their rules in a few sentences while others devote several pages to a somewhat definitive statement of policy. It is the considered opinion of the writer that too much or too little can be included in a published policy statement covering the matter. The problem does not lend itself to solution by the application of a set of purely mechanical rules. However, it is highly desirable that the residence rules be sufficiently exact to take care of the great majority of registrations without difficulty or incident and to permit the unusual cases to be resolved with dispatch and fairness by exercise of sound discretion. If the writer has sufficiently explored the problem so as to have suggested a frame of reference within which the administrator may come to grips with the problem the objective of this endeavor will have been accomplished.

Four P's in a Pod*

RICHARD L. TUTHILL

BECAUSE so much that is informative and sound has been said and written about the specific duties and techniques of the Office of the Registrar and Admissions Officer, it will not be a purpose of this paper to itemize, reiterate, or discuss the many functions which comprise this area of concern. Rather, it is my hope to provide a kind of framework of reference upon which you might hang some of your thoughts and feelings about being a professional Registrar or Admissions Officer. In the process, it is hoped that there will be set forth certain attitudes, mayhap even a kind of philosophy, which will prove meaningful both to you as an individual and to the institution of which you are an integral part. This framework is at best imperfect; yet there are those here and elsewhere who can and will improve and refine what I shall try to say. They will, through their own example, pass on to others a professional philosophy of high value, worthy of the long years spent in its development. Such is the challenge; and I have faith that deep satisfaction can be had in the face of present and future problems.

I shall consider answers to four basic questions:

1. What is the nature of our profession?
2. What is the nature of our position within our profession?
3. What is the nature of our problem?
4. What is the nature of our product?

Here are the four p's in a pod.

1. THE NATURE OF OUR PROFESSION

There can be little dissent if we characterize our profession as a fabric woven from strands of human relations. Our every concern, everything that we do falls within this all-embracing characteristic. Human beings are both the raw material and the finished fabric of our professional work. The Registrar or Admissions Officer is in a sense a master weaver: he sets the loom and meticulously strings it; his is often the choice of threads; his voice is heard in the choice of

* Originally published in the Report of the Eighth Annual Session of the Southern Association of College and University Registrars, December 1, 1954, at Louisville, Kentucky.

design; and the final product is certified by and from his ledger.

Because our profession is one of human relations, the contacts are numerous and at times burdensome. Students, faculty, administrators, alumni, parents, high school personnel, colleagues, office staff . . . people and more people are our daily lot. Meetings, assemblies, committees, organizations, delegations . . . week after week our work is with people. In consequence, we may be excused if at times we become immersed in machines or grades or space allotments. But such lapses are temporary and even then are related to the fundamental nature of our work . . . human beings. Clearly our frame of reference must embrace a true appreciation for and of human capacities and values. Even more—we must have a real faith in the fundamental goodness and the ultimate success of our fellow men. This calls for a realistic but optimistic approach to the work of our office. Cynicism and pessimism must be rooted out for they can but lead to resentments and unhappiness.

In consequence of these numerous and constant human relationships, it is an essential quality of our office that we find our greatest satisfaction from working with people, for this is the nature of our profession.

2. THE NATURE OF OUR POSITION

In the organizational structure of higher education the position of the Registrar and Admissions Officer may be characterized most honestly as that of the "middleman." This is true of almost every major aspect of our work. Whether we be processing data or distributing it; whether we be selling ideas or keeping books or constructing procedures, it is the nature of our position to be in the middle of things. Such a position is at once both satisfying and irritating. But we must learn to live with it for we are never the chief executive and we are never the customer. Here clearly is the second major characteristic of our frame of reference. It is the primary source of the dynamic quality of our position and at the same time the source of greatest hazard.

Because of our position we must exercise both foresight and hindsight. Because of our position a great mass of detailed information is both available and inescapable. It is our job to organize this detail into meaningful and utilitarian patterns of action which tie the various elements of our institutions into functional structures. In

the realm of student relationships alone we stand between the high school student and his admission to college, between the student and administrator, between the student and instructor; occasionally we find ourselves between the student and his parents; unhappily too often between one student and another; and not often enough between the student and the system. Somewhat similar is our relationship as middleman between faculty and administration. It is unnecessary to exemplify each of the categories of relationship. Yet it might be pointed out that the effectiveness with which we operate is in direct proportion to the quality of human understanding which we bring to this middle position. The nature of our position is such as to enable us to become effective arbitrators, conciliators, and advisors, or we may become mere dictators and pontificators.

3. THE NATURE OF OUR PROBLEM

Every major facet of the work of the Registrar and Admissions Officer is characterized by the need to interpret. By the nature of our profession and position our constant problem is that of interpretation and we must devote ourselves unceasingly to it.

Surely within the confines of our numerous and diversified records and with our multiple contacts, we have more detailed information than does any other office. Concerning the student both individually and collectively, we are in a position to know his background, his achievements, his failures, and his aspirations. Our data record him as an individual, as a member of the student body, a classman, a statistic, and a permanent serial number. In each and all of these capacities he requires and needs interpretation . . . sometimes to himself, often to his instructors, and always to the administration.

In much the same manner our contacts and records develop pertinent data on and for instructor and administrator alike. Such insights judiciously interpreted are of major significance in the operation of our institutions. Often we are able to know the strengths and weaknesses of our colleagues not readily discernible to others. Often we are privileged to discern between true character and mere protective coloration. By careful interpretation the obstructionist can be made a protagonist; the theorist, a practitioner; and the alarmist, a helpful colleague.

Our offices are also storehouses of past history and current fact. The rules and regulations repose in our catalogues. Policy is implicit

and explicit in our procedures. But we are not archivists! Our problem is to interpret that which we necessarily collect and preserve. To justify, to prove, to determine . . . these are our activities; and by interpretation, trends are discovered, procedures suggested, and findings translated into action.

4. THE NATURE OF OUR PRODUCT

If then, the nature of our profession is human relations, the nature of our position is that of middleman, and the nature of our problem is interpretation, we must ask finally what is the nature of our product. Surely, you anticipate me at this point. How easy it is to label this product, but how difficult to honestly devote ourselves to it. This end product is not unique, nor is it exclusively ours. Although failures to achieve this product are numerous, there have been many individuals within our profession who have achieved more than a modicum of success in the development of this product. I refer, of course, to the goal of altruistic service. This is the greatest and most difficult of all products; it is the keystone of Christian doctrine; it is the most rewarding and the most satisfying—even when accomplished in but small degree.

Everything that has been said in this paper leads unswervingly toward this goal of service to others. By it we become party to that which is best in higher education. For this reason we may find few, if any, of our profession among the great educators, but many are to be found among the most beloved educators. Such persons are truly dedicated to the service ideal. We must seek to serve the student, the faculty, the administration, and the parents. But if the end product of our institution is the educated student, then the end product of our office is service to the student. It is our greatest responsibility to maintain the importance of the student, for this group can ill defend itself and easily can be subordinated by the deceptive guise of maturity in combination with the old cliché of "father knows best." This is not to be construed as an attack; rather it is to point out that all too often the student is neglected when policy and procedure are developed.

Every service which is rendered can and should be measured in terms of its contribution to the education of the student. How many of our rules and regulations, policies and practices can stand the glare of such a searching criterion? Have we not developed a credit-

conscious clientele to the point of absurdity? Is there not greater concern for the requisite number of semester hours and quality points than for the knowledge which they represent? Are degrees not more often symbols of economic security than badges of intellectual achievement? How easy, yet how dangerous, are the processes whereby we attempt to categorize and regiment human relationship! How easy to lend oneself to the advocacy of formula for the control of human behavior! How dangerous to become party to the enforcement of constrictive, rather than constructive, administrative policies!

You are of service to your institution when you enforce its rules and regulations and administer its policies with unbiased integrity; you are equally of service when you advocate change based upon your knowledge of human beings, your central position of responsibility, and your capacity to interpret needs.

A Small College-High School Conference

MARY ROSE McWILLIAMS

IT WAS INTERESTING to read of the "Action Programs in College Relations" published in the Spring 1957 issue of COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY. The five reporting institutions were all large state universities and their programs sounded well-organized and effective. The fact that they were published stemmed from a motion from the floor at the 1956 annual meeting in Detroit, made in the hope that the data might aid other institutions in establishing programs of their own. The description of a small college's endeavors along these lines might also be in order and of general interest, since any college, size notwithstanding, can have a positive program of high school relations.

Cedar Crest (enrollment 500) has had for the past nine years, in October, an annual School and College Conference. To this are invited the principals and/or counselors from all schools from which we have or have had students. Also included are schools from which we have had requests for information or which have been visited by an admissions officer. Preannouncements are sent out early in June so that the date may be saved on the calendar, and the formal invitations are issued in the middle of September. There are about 200 acceptances.

The theme of the conference each year deals with the mutual role of school and college in a particular area. Freshman orientation, extracurricular activities, and scholarships have been some of the bases for discussion in the past. This year the topic was the education of students to socially responsible citizenship.

The format of the actual conference which we have found most satisfactory is a panel discussion in midafternoon, followed by a period when principals and counselors may meet (by prearrangement) with their graduates on the campus. The panel of four consists of two college representatives and two school representatives from public and private institutions. Dinner is served in the college dining hall with faculty members as hosts, and this is followed by the evening speaker, who talks generally to the theme of the day.

A few words about the period of time (an hour or so) set aside to make it possible for school personnel to meet with former stu-

dents may be in order. The invitations to the principals and counselors issued in September state that arrangements will be made for visits with their graduates following the afternoon panel if they wish, and a return card provides a space to so indicate. Nearly all whose former students are presently freshmen express a desire to visit with them, as well as many whose graduates are upperclassmen. With the exception of Allentown, the number from any one high school who will meet with their former counselor rarely exceeds five, so that these students can be easily contacted in advance of the conference and assigned to a room. One member of the group is usually asked to meet her counselor at the conclusion of the panel discussion and escort her to the specified meeting place. The counselor, in the meantime, has received the room information as part of the registration material.

The essence of the meeting between the students and their former principal or counselor is informality. Frequently, because the groups are small, the students show the counselor their dormitory rooms. Since the school personnel have voluntarily given comments where they felt college follow-up was indicated, no attempt has been made to survey them in an official way.

The primary aim in this annual Conference is to focus discussion on the schools' and colleges' roles in specific areas of a student's education. The extent to which we have been mutually successful or unsuccessful in these roles can often be measured in the "off-the-record" principal-freshman interviews, which form an integral part of the Conference.

The Relation of Certain Aspects of High School Performance to Academic Success in College*

J. SPENCER CARLSON and VICTOR MILSTEIN

THE UNIVERSITY OF OREGON has, in the past, maintained the policy of admitting as a freshman any Oregon student who can demonstrate satisfactory completion of secondary school work, i.e., any student who has a diploma from a standard high school in the state of Oregon. However, since the University of Oregon faces the same problems with regard to enrollments as other institutions throughout the country, beginning in the fall of 1958 the University will require freshmen entering from Oregon high schools to have achieved a C average. Should a student fail to meet this requirement, he must obtain a sufficiently high score on the entrance examination to show a reasonable expectation of success in college, or he may attend another college before entering the University. In this latter case, he will be treated as a transfer student and will have to present a C average for a normal college load in the institution from which he is transferring before he will be admitted.

Since adequate college advising for either a selected or an unselected freshman class is predicated on some knowledge of the individual's probable success in college, the Office of the Director of Admissions at the University of Oregon maintains a continuing investigation of predictors of student performance. This information is also used in selecting out-of-state applicants by applying the predictor ratings based upon in-state students. The method presently employed involves a combination of a college aptitude rating based on either the Ohio State University Psychological Examination or the CEEB Scholastic Aptitude Test, and a "Prep" rating which consists of the ratio of units of A in all high school courses to the total number of high school units accepted.

A predictor rating of this form is similar to those suggested by Garrett¹ as the best combinations for predicting scholastic success in

* A modified version of this paper was presented at the Western Psychological Association meetings, Eugene, Oregon, 1957.

¹ H. F. Garrett, "A Review and Interpretation of Investigations of Factors Related to Scholastic Success in Colleges of Arts and Sciences and Teachers Colleges," *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 18:91-138, 1949.

college. The purpose of the present study was the determination of those aspects of the high school record which are most closely related to college grade point average (GPA) since it was believed that a finer breakdown of this record might afford a better prediction of the criterion. First quarter GPA was used as the criterion because it has been shown earlier that the best predictor of later college performance has been earlier achievement.² As Travers³ stated, "for the prediction of second semester grades, the first semester grades are by far the best criterion." In addition, it was planned that a new rating using the information from the finer breakdown of the high school record be constructed and compared with that currently employed.

Certain conditions were to be imposed on the nature of any new predictor rating that might be devised. As Carlson⁴ stated, for a rating to be most satisfactory, it should meet the following seven standards:

1. Most obviously, it should predict with the greatest possible accuracy later college performance, generally or in specific areas.

2. It should have a college frame of reference in that it must relate to performance in the particular institution. In short, it must have a college population norm.

3. It should minimize differences between high schools; i.e., the rating should be a function of the student's performance and not of his particular school's standards of grading.

4. It should minimize differences between the various types of high school curricula; e.g., between general or vocational and college preparatory programs of study.

5. It should be in a form amenable to statistical analysis.

6. It should be adaptable to rapid and accurate computation.

7. Finally, because public endorsement of the policies of any institution is important, it should be comparatively easy to understand and accept. That is, it should have face validity.

The procedure in the present study involved randomly selecting the

² G. U. Cleeton, "The Predictive Value of Certain Measures of Ability in College Freshmen," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 15:357-370, 1927.

³ R. M. W. Travers, "Significant Research on the Prediction of Academic Success." In Wilma T. Donahue, et al. (Eds.), *The Measurement of Student Adjustment and Achievement*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1949, p. 155.

⁴ J. Spencer Carlson, "Evaluation of the Individual Student." Paper read at Pacific Coast Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, Spokane, Washington, Nov. 13, 1956. (Abstracted in the *Thirtieth Annual Conference Proceedings*, p. 18.)

high school records of one-half of the in-state freshman class entering in the fall of 1953. These records were broken down into seven course categories: English, Science, Social Science, Industrial Arts, Fine Arts, Business, Physical Education and Health. A data sheet utilizing this breakdown was designed and one was filled out for each student in the sample, $N = 508$, by an office clerk who also recorded the rank in the graduating class, the number of units for each course, and the number of A's and B's. Separate tabulations were made for the total high school record, for the ninth grade alone, and for the tenth through twelfth grades. By way of illustration, we may consider English courses. From the record, the clerk computed and recorded (1) the number of units of English taken in the ninth grade; (2) the number of units of A and B in ninth grade English; (3) the total number of ninth grade English credits computed by multiplying the number of units of A, B, C, D, F, by 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 respectively and adding these together. This same procedure was then carried out for those English courses taken in the tenth through twelfth grades, and for all English courses taken in high school.

The seven course categories were further divided into three broader areas: *Academic*, consisting of English, Science, and Social Science courses as well as all language courses, Journalism, Speech, etc.; *Vocational*, including Industrial Arts, Fine Arts, Business, in addition to Library Science, Nursing, Teacher Training, Typing, etc.; and *Activity*, consisting of Physical Education and Health, as well as Band, Debate, Drama, Driving, etc. The same computations described above for the seven categories of courses were also carried out for these three broad areas.

These data were transformed into ratios to take account of the varying amounts and types of courses with which students finish high school; i.e., the ratio consisted of the number of units of A or B in a specific course or area divided by the number of units in that course or area which the student had taken. Then, to facilitate computation, all of these data were recorded on IBM cards; and utilizing the technique of progressive totals on the IBM Accounting Machine No. 402, a matrix of product-moment correlations was computed for these variables. Additional variables included in this matrix consisted of the previous "Prep" rating and scores from the entrance tests.

The correlations of these variables with first quarter GPA are

presented in Table I. Since the correlations between GPA on the one hand, and ninth through twelfth and tenth through twelfth grades on the other, are of the same order, further analysis was limited to data based on ninth through twelfth grade performance. Multiple regression equations were computed for a series of variables selected on an *a priori* basis. The variables used and the results of

TABLE I
PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF COURSES AND AREAS WITH
FIRST QUARTER GRADE POINT AVERAGE (GPA)

Variable	Correlation with First Quarter GPA	
	9th-12th	10th-12th
General		
Class rank in percentile form		.613
Old prep rating		.483
Ohio Psychological Test total score		.492
Areas		
Ratio of Academic A's to Academic units	.564	.590
Ratio of Academic B's to Academic units	.174	.123
Academic average	.634	.641
Ratio of Vocational A's to Vocational units	.390	.376
Ratio of Vocational B's to Vocational units	.001	.024
Vocational average	.495	.471
Ratio of Activity A's to Activity units	.229	.236
Ratio of Activity B's to Activity units	.061	.047
Activity average	.214	.254
Ratio of total A's to total units	.564	.592
Ratio of total B's to total units	.120	.061
High school average	.623	.615
Subjects		
Ratio of English A's to English units	.489	
English average	.584	
Ratio of Science A's to Science units	.504	
Science average	.497	
Ratio of Social Science A's to Social Science units	.498	
Social Science average	.528	
Ratio of Industrial Arts A's to Industrial Arts units	.230	
Industrial Arts average	.337	
Ratio of Fine Arts A's to Fine Arts units	.335	
Fine Arts average	.381	
Ratio of Business A's to Business units	.442	
Business average	.420	
Ratio of P.E. & Health A's to P.E. & Health units	.189	
P.E. & Health average	.180	
Total number of high school units	.139	
Total number of Academic units	.107	
Total number of Vocational units	.020	
Total number of Activity units	.022	
Ratio of Academic units to total units	.074	
Ratio of Vocational units to total units	.056	
Ratio of Activity units to total units	.044	

University of Oregon • Office of Admissions • April, 1957

vm

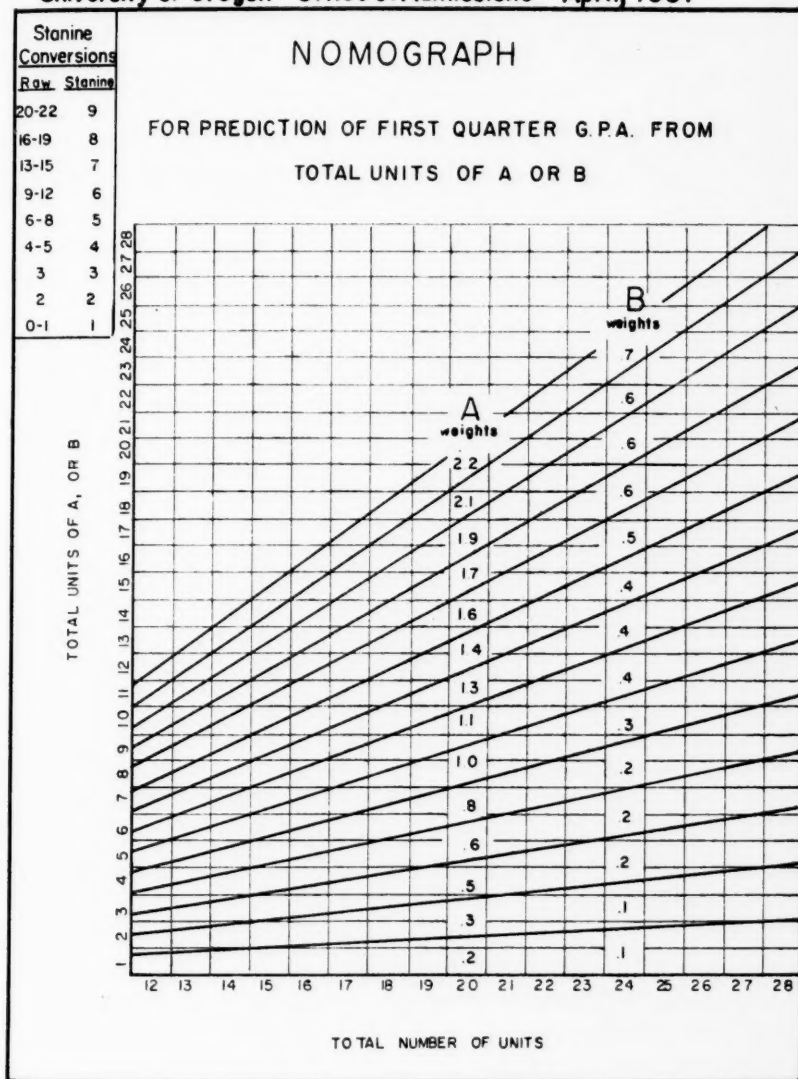


FIGURE I

the combinations are presented in Table II. Because of the time required to break down the high school record into the three broad areas, with the attendant increased probability of errors occurring, Equation IV in Table II was rejected even though it yielded the

TABLE II
MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS COMPUTED WITH GPA AS CRITERION

Equation Number	Variable	Multiple R
I	Ratio of Academic A's to Academic units Ratio of Academic B's to Academic units Ratio of Vocational A's to Vocational units Ratio of Activity A's to Activity units	.590
II	Ratio of Academic A's to Academic units Ratio of Academic B's to Academic units	.634
III	Ratio of total A's to total units Ratio of total B's to total units	.633
IV	Academic average Vocational average Activity average	.669
V	Ratio of Academic A's to Academic units Ratio of Academic B's to Academic units Ratio of Vocational A's to Vocational units Ratio of Vocational B's to Vocational units	.631

highest multiple correlation with GPA. Two nomographs, one of which is reproduced in Figure I, were constructed from Equations II and III to facilitate computation of the ratings by an office clerk. The ratings from Equations II and III were then recorded on the IBM cards of a new sample—the entire in-state freshman class entering in the fall of 1956. At the same time, a stanine score equivalent of the predictor rating from Equation III was also entered into the cards.

If we consider the square of the correlation of a pair of variables as indicating the proportion of variance that can be accounted for in one by the other, then Table I can be used to indicate the relative contributions of the various courses and areas to first quarter GPA. The first thing to be noted is that, in most cases, more of the variance can be accounted for by using the average grade than by either A's or B's alone. This is most striking in the Vocational area where the ratio of A's correlated .390, the ratio of B's correlated .001 (actually .0008), while the Vocational average correlated .495. It should also be noted that the multiple correlations in Table II involving A's and

B's were generally equal to or greater than the validity coefficients computed on the basis of averages. A combination of A's and B's was used in the predictor ratings rather than averages for this reason as well as its affording greater ease of computation.⁵

The results in Table I further indicate that those courses which are called Academic contribute most to the criterion; Vocational courses determine the next largest portion of accountable variability; with Activity courses contributing least. However, the intercorrelations between the variables (not reported here) suggest that of the courses comprising a broad area, one or two may account for most of the variance. For example, while the correlation with GPA of Academic average is .634 and of English average is .584, these two averages intercorrelate .935.

It should be pointed out that ratings based on ratios rather than on simple addition of grades and units involve much more computational time and allow for greater possibility of error in arriving at a rating for a student by an office clerk. Since amenability to rapid and accurate computation was one of the seven standards on which a rating was to be judged, some question may be raised as to why this procedure was selected. As stated before, the number of units of high school credit presented by students varies considerably. In the 1953 sample of 508, the total number of high school units accepted by the University ranged from 12 to 26. Further, some of the students had taken almost all of their courses in the Academic area while others had taken only the minimum of courses in this area required by their school. Previous investigations at the University of Oregon indicated that ratings which did not take this variability into account were poorer predictors than those which did. The results of this study also bore this out. It can be seen in Table I that there is a small but statistically reliable relationship between first quarter GPA and total number of high school units and also total number of Academic units.

In order to determine whether the devised rating was appropriate for students coming from different high schools with different standards, i.e., whether it minimized the differences between high schools, the ratings of students from one large school and from an entire school district made up of seven separate schools were correlated

⁵ Additional analysis of the data not reported here derived from the area averages made their use questionable in view of doubtful cross-validity and cumbersome computational requirements.

with their first quarter GPA. These were chosen because the University regularly enrolls a substantial number of students from these two sources each year. In the 1953 sample there were 48 students from the school and 60 from the district, and the correlations of the predictor with GPA were .736 and .701 respectively. In 1956, there were 184 and 219 students from these two sources and the correlations were .733 and .649 respectively.

Since any empirically derived prediction method may take advantage of chance variations in the group upon which it is based, a cross-validation was performed on an entirely new group of students—the 1956 class of in-state freshmen, $N = 1138$. Before discussing the results of this cross-validation, it should be noted that the form of the rating used in all of the results so far discussed was the raw score derived from the weighted ratios of total units of A and total units of B. A distribution of predictor raw scores based on both the original and cross-validational samples, $N = 1646$, was used to derive corresponding stanine scores. This conversion table is shown in the upper left corner of Figure I. The cross-validation was performed by correlating predictor scores in both raw and stanine form, which intercorrelated .959, with GPA and a number of other variables. The obtained correlations for the two forms of the predictor rating were identical—.677. In addition, the size of the correlations of the two forms with the other variables was quite similar. The largest difference was .012 and most of the differences were of the order of .009.

The previous "Prep" rating for the 1953 sample correlated .483 with first quarter GPA, and for the 1956 sample correlated .599. On the basis of the comparative validities, the predictor involving the ratio of total A's and B's, which correlated .675 and .677 with GPA for the 1953 and 1956 samples respectively, is sufficiently superior to warrant a change in the method of computing high school ratings.

In summary, the study indicated, in general, that course averages of A's and B's combined had a higher relationship to first quarter GPA than either A's or B's alone. The same relationships held for the three broad areas of the high school curriculum. Most of the variance is accounted for by courses in the Academic area, with English course grades contributing most to Academic scores.

The rating developed conforms fairly well to the standards proposed and holds up on cross-validation. It is superior to the present rating, based on the ratio of A's alone, and will replace it shortly.

The Effect of Campus Marriages on Participation in College Life

EVERETT M. ROGERS

THE NUMBER of married students on our college campuses has been increasing at a sharp rate. At Iowa State College, the percentage of the student body that is married has risen from less than 5 to almost 25 per cent within the past ten years. At the present time, 20 per cent of the students that graduate from Iowa State College marry during their enrollment at college. This trend toward more campus marriages, coupled with swelling *total* college enrollments in the United States, has produced a greatly increased number of married college students. Reasons for this tendency may be traced to the decrease in the average age at marriage, the gradual acceptance of marriage as a part of college life, and the advent of government-sponsored educational programs for veterans which encourage the matriculation of older students and those who are also more likely to be married. Not only has the number of married students been increasing rapidly, but also the number of "parent" students, that is, those who are not only married but also are parents of children. According to the study described later in this article, almost 60 per cent of the married students at Iowa State College in 1956 were parent students.

These post-World War II developments on our campuses have not gone without comment by educators and sociologists. They have caused problems for college administrators, such as a greater need for married student housing and an increase in academic mortality due to marriage. The purpose of this article is to explore another facet related to the increasing numbers of married students, that of their participation in various aspects of college life. The value to the student of these nonclassroom aspects of college life has been emphasized by many writers. (1)

College and university administrators generally feel they owe it to their students to provide adequate opportunities for a full social life as well as an adequate educational program. Married students at the present time do not seem to be utilizing college-sponsored social and activities programs to the same extent as single students. If college administrators seek to increase the participation of married students

in the college social and activities program, they will need to consider the different social characteristics of married students.

This article seeks to determine: (1) the extent to which married students have a lower degree of participation in college life, and (2) why marriage leads to lower participation, if it does so.

METHODOLOGY

Most of the data presented in this article come from a study of student participation in campus life at Iowa State College (4) which was completed in 1956. A randomly selected sample of the 8,200 students enrolled during the Winter Term, 1956, were contacted by mailed questionnaires. Usable responses from 88.3 per cent of the sample were received. Findings from these 725 respondents may be generalized to the total population of students enrolled.¹ Attempts to apply the findings to other campuses must be made at the reader's discretion; however, in the author's opinion Iowa State College is probably fairly typical of the state-supported institutions in the Midwest.

FINDINGS

Married students were found to differ from the rest of the student body in a number of important personal characteristics, which were later found to be related to their participation in college life.

1. Married students were more likely to be male (92 per cent compared to 66 per cent for the rest of the student body). This may be partly because female students are more likely to drop from college upon marriage than are male students.
2. Sixty per cent of the married students were war veterans compared to 11 per cent of the single students.
3. Married students were more likely to be upper-classmen or graduate students. The percentage of each class that were married were: freshman, 9 per cent; sophomores, 14 per cent; juniors, 17 per cent; seniors, 28 per cent; and graduate students, 74 per cent.
4. Although 29 per cent of all students at Iowa State College were working part-time, more married students were found in this category. Twenty-six per cent of the single students were working and 40 per cent of the married students.
5. Married students were more likely to own cars on the campus

¹ When the 725 respondents were compared with the 95 nonrespondents on eight different social characteristics on which data were available, the only significant difference was on the basis of place of college residence.

(91 per cent of the married students as compared with 38 per cent of the single students).

6. Married students were less likely (13 per cent) to receive financial help from their parents than were single students (60 per cent). By considering only the students who were married while they were enrolled at Iowa State College, it was found that college marriages often result in an end of parental financial support.

Participation in College Activities. Three of the more important aspects of participation in college life are: (1) participation in campus activities, (2) attendance at college athletic events, and (3) attendance at college-sponsored social events. Scales to measure participation in each of these three aspects of college life were constructed. The first of these was called an Activities Participation Scale and was similar to the Chapin Social Participation Scale (3) in that scale points were allotted to each student on the basis of his membership and leadership in campus organizations. Campus activities were defined as those formal organizations or groups whose membership was composed mostly of college students. An average Activities Participation Scale of 7.09 was computed for the 725 sample students, although almost 23 per cent were in no activities and had AP Scores of zero.²

In comparison, more than 37 per cent of the married students were in no activities. The average AP Score for all married students was 3.72, which was considerably below that of 7.96 for all single students.

Attendance at Athletic Events. In general, married students are less involved in campus organizations. Another measure of the degree to which they participate in college life is their attendance at college athletic events. An athletic event of some kind is scheduled almost every week at Iowa State College. These functions constitute a major area of student life, as they do at most other colleges and universities. An Athletic Events Attendance Scale³ was constructed in which one point was awarded for attending each type of athletic event "rarely," two points for "occasional" attendance, and three

² Studies at a number of other colleges and universities (1, 2, 6) have found that a third or more of the student body is not involved in any campus activities.

³ Some evidence of the validity of this scale was secured by also determining the actual number of athletic events attended by each of the respondents (secured from the punched student activity cards). The coefficient of correlation between the AEA Scale and this information was found to be +.57.

points for "regular" attendance. Five types of athletic events were included in the questionnaire (football, basketball, baseball, wrestling matches, and swimming meets) so that possible scores could range from zero to 15.

Single students averaged 7.02; married students without children, 6.33; and married students with children, only 4.06, even though admission to these events was free at Iowa State College.

Attendance at Social Events. Another measure of participation in college life is the degree to which students attend college-sponsored lectures, musical activities, dramatic and social events. A Social Events Attendance Scale was constructed with scoring similar to the Athletic Events Attendance Scale. Average attendance scores for married and single students at eight types of social events included in the scale were:

Single students	7.60
Married without children	5.46
Married with children	3.91

Reasons for Lower Participation. On all three measures of participation in college life married students fell far behind single students. There appear to be at least two possible reasons for this lower degree of participation: (1) Students who marry while in college may lack human relations skills, interests, or the social adjustment that would make them higher participators in campus organizations; college marriages may be "selective" in that they appeal to those who are low participators in activities; or (2) There may be some factors related to student marriages, such as changes in interests, amount of time available, motivations, etc., that cause a decrease in participation after marriage. In other words, campus marriages may just have a selective effect, or they may really *cause* a decrease in participation in college activities.

In order to determine which reason was more important, the married students were divided into two groups: (1) those who were married at the time they enrolled at Iowa State College, and (2) those who were married after more than one term as a single student. The students who married while enrolled were more likely to have at least some activities participation (84 per cent) as compared to only 51 per cent of the students who were married before entering college. Table I indicates that this latter group also had lower average AP

Scores, 2.60 as compared to 5.40 for those students who married while in college.

TABLE I
PARTICIPATION OF MARRIED AND SINGLE STUDENTS IN
CAMPUS ACTIVITIES

Category	Per cent in No Activities	Average Activities Participation Scores
All Single Students	19%	7.96
All Students	23%	7.09
All Married Students	37%	3.72
Married While in College	16%	5.40
Married Before College	49%	2.60

The fact that students who married while in college had a higher degree of participation in activities than students married before college but lower than single students might lead one to conclude tentatively that marriage results in decreased participation. Thirty-six per cent of all the married students were classified in the "marriage after college enrollment" group. They were asked, "How did your marriage after you started college affect your participation in college activities?" More than half responded that marriage caused a decrease in their participation in activities, and of the remainder, none said that marriage caused an increase in participation. Many of the respondents volunteered reasons for this tendency, such as, "Since marriage I have less interest in campus activities," or "Lack of time."

As the meetings for most campus organizations are held in the evening, it might be expected that married students with children would tend to have more family obligations and correspondingly lower Activities Participation Scores than married students without children. Parent students did have lower AP Scores (3.03) than married students without children (4.66).

The roles of husband and father, on one hand, and the role of student on the other, appear to be competitive rather than complementary. This is illustrated by some selected comments made by married students when they were asked (on the mailed questionnaire) why they were not in more campus activities.

"I have turned down invitations to join two honoraries in the past year due to lack of money for initiation fees and my disgust for silly initiations." (Married junior with "A" average)

"I feel that I do not receive full value out of college activities and

events because I commute and because of my family. I would like to attend some events, especially the meetings of my departmental club, but the meetings are on a weekday night at 8 p.m.; I would have to buy my supper in collegetown and by the time the meeting was over and I got home it would be 11 p.m., and I couldn't be with my family." (Sophomore commuter)

"I wish my departmental club would meet in the evening rather than late in the afternoon as I must be at home to prepare supper." (Married woman student)

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

It has been shown that on all three measures of participation in college life (participation in campus activities, attendance at athletic events, and participation in college social events) married students fall far behind single students. Whether this lower participation by married students may be good or bad is not the concern of this article. There may be some reason for thinking that the lower participation of married students is not especially undesirable, as far as the individual is concerned. For instance, perhaps married students secure an adequate social life (but of a different type) in their familial relations. The implications of the growing trend in campus marriages are more obvious for the college or university administrator.

The increasing number of married students on our college campuses has already caused a number of significant changes. Some colleges and universities are now building apartment homes for married students as well as dormitories for single students. A new type of formal organization is springing up on many of our campuses as a direct result of the trend toward college marriages. That is the wives' auxiliary. For instance, at Iowa State College within the past four years about 20 wives' auxiliaries have been founded, ranging in title from "Veterinary Medicine Wives" to "Foresters' Wives." The main purpose of these groups is to provide social outlets for married students and to orient students' wives towards their husbands' future professions.

Other innovations are special tickets for students' wives so that they may sit with their husbands in the student section at college-sponsored events. Other changes have included the founding of special church-sponsored youth groups especially for married students, and provisions for free baby sitting at some college events.

College marriages have had an effect on attrition rates, especially

those of female students. For instance, Slocum (5) reported that at the State College of Washington the most important reason for the academic mortality of women was marriage. Although the present study was only concerned with the participation of those married students who continued their enrollment after marriage, the student who marries and drops out obviously puts a complete stop to his participation in college life.

One important implication of the trend toward the increasing number of college marriages is the need for college courses in family education. Perhaps it is no accident that an increase in the enrollment in family sociology courses at Iowa State College has closely paralleled the sharp increase in the percentage of married students. The fact that considerable numbers of marriages take place early in the students' college careers implies that courses in marriage and the family must be located in the underclass or even in the high school curriculum.

Lastly, the increasing number of married students and the lack of information about their personal characteristics suggests a need for further research in this area.

RESEARCH CITED

1. Clara M. Brown, "A Social-Activities Survey," *Journal of Higher Education*, 8:257-265, May, 1937.
2. John Burma, "Student Attitudes Toward And Participation in Campus Organizations," *Sociology and Social Research*, 32:625-629, November, 1947.
3. F. Stuart Chapin, "Social Participation and Social Intelligence," *American Sociological Review*, 4:157-166, April, 1939.
4. Charles G. Henningsen, Ronald C. Moss, and Everett M. Rogers, *Participation in Campus Life*. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State College Bookstore, 1956.
5. W. L. Slocum, "Social Factors Involved in Academic Mortality," *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, 32:53-64, Fall, 1956.
6. E. G. Williamson, W. L. Layton and M. L. Snoke, *A Study of Participation in College Activities*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954.

The Ides of May

ELIZABETH GORDON

THE PROBLEM of multiple applications for college admissions has become grave for high school students, guidance counselors, admissions officers, and parents, whose outlay in unreturnable fees has increased beyond the means of many families. The difficulty stems from several sources: large graduating classes, the majority of which aspire to a college career; hysteria engendered by publicity concerning the increasing difficulty of acceptance in college; and late notification of acceptance by some colleges. Guidance counselors and admissions officers have no control over the size of graduating classes or publicity, but they can attempt co-operatively to remedy the present situation.

The high school senior applies to colleges of his counselor's recommendation, to those of his parents' choice, and to those of his own choosing. Then, in growing worry, he adds a few at which he feels certain he will be accepted.

The "Ides of May" acceptances render hardship to all parties concerned. The student who has been accepted early in the year by a certain college holds this acceptance until he hears from the "May-15-College." By so doing he forces the former college to send out more acceptances than it can handle and may also deprive another student of admission to that college.

Some colleges, but too few, are trying to solve the problem, and their method if generally accepted would lessen the present difficulty. These institutions give a judgment early in the fall of the senior year to those students who have indicated them as "first choice." Greater good would result from an appraisal during the spring of the junior year.

In the junior year a student could take the CEEB tests, if required. The first-choice college could make a tentative evaluation of the applicant's record and extracurricular activities and notify him of his chances of acceptance, or of a provisional acceptance if he appears to meet the standards of the institution. The student who received "Excellent" on the possibility of being accepted would be inclined to restrict his application to that one college or to not more than one other, "just in case."

Logically, there is little advantage in waiting until May of the

senior year to learn if a student meets the requirements for admission to a certain college. The junior is father to the senior; and, all things being equal, the senior will be as good as, if not better than, the junior. He will be a better citizen, more aware of the importance of learning, and one year closer to adulthood and responsibility.

Better yet would be an acceptance, not just an appraisal, with the proviso that the student continue the same quality of work during senior year. Further advantages would result: the high school senior would have an incentive to maintain his record, and senior jitters would be lessened measurably. The student would be able to concentrate on acquiring necessary skills. The unacceptable student would have a fair chance to find another college.

Colleges would profit as much as high schools and students. Some colleges are swamped with applications and yet realize that many of their acceptances will be rejected: they must allow for a percentage of refusals after May 15. They would be able to predict more accurately the size and quality of their freshman class.

The present situation is unfair to high schools, to students, and to the colleges less in demand. The "in-demand" colleges cannot be afraid of not filling their incoming classes! Why can they not be prevailed upon to give a provisional acceptance, even in the junior year? There is room for everyone someplace, and guidance counselors *should* be able to find that place without a student's falling victim to multiple-application-itis. A junior year appraisal would help; a junior year provisional acceptance would give us all a chance. Perhaps the college admissions officers could examine the situation, and study and weigh the advantages of giving at least a relative judgment toward the end of the junior year.

Editorial Comment

THERE WERE a good many years when librarians used to keep *Huckleberry Finn* from the reading public because it was vulgar. The librarians were absurd, but they nevertheless did damage, because they made it impossible for youngsters to read what often turns out to be the major literary adventure of youth. Now the board of education of our largest city is keeping Huck from youngsters because it contains passages derogatory to Negroes.

Perhaps the only valid objection to reading a major classic is that comprehension of a classic involves some native intelligence. Fortunately, most youngsters have that modicum of intelligence, and come away from *Huckleberry Finn* with a love of Nigger Jim something like Huck's, and with a compassion for the oppressed and contemned Negroes that reflects Mark Twain's.

Mark Twain was something of a self-tormentor, taking on his conscience sins and stupidities for which he could not possibly be responsible. During most of his life he felt a personal guilt for the treatment of colored people by whites, and showed his feelings in more than one of his books. In *Huckleberry Finn* his feelings are apparent; but he transcended them in making clear what so desperately needs to be clear today: why a whole section of the American people feel as they do toward Negroes. As nowhere else, in *Huckleberry Finn* we can see, clearly and inescapably, why integration is impossible now in some parts of our country. (Nor are we to assume that all those parts are in one geographical area: the same emotional complications confuse logical progress in communities throughout the country.) To all the white people in Mark Twain's novel, Negroes are niggers—and those white people range from scoundrels like Huck's father up to the gentle aunts of Tom Sawyer. It never enters their heads to think about the assumption: they simply grew up that way.

To Mark Twain it seems to have been clear that nobody is a nigger, whatever his color or condition of servitude; but he indulged in no preaching on the subject. He simply showed, in Jim, a personality so winning in his gentle integrity that to make his acquaintance is to share Huck's affection and respect for him. It is Jim's humanity that troubles Huck, for Huck has never had occasion to think of a Negro as a human being; and then he finds himself in the com-

pany of a human being who makes whites like the King and the Duke look like trash—who, for that matter, makes Huck himself feel like trash when he has been cruel.

There are characters in *Huckleberry Finn* who make derogatory remarks about Negroes; there are those who manhandle Jim and threaten his life. Their conduct, however, is shocking, profoundly shocking when they are gentle people like Aunt Sally. Yet to be shocked, a reader must have the capacity to be shocked. Little people are shocked by little events, and do not even know that big ones are taking place. It is something of a measure of a reader to find out what shocks him. A member of a board of education may, apparently, be shocked by finding the word *nigger* in print; a more attentive reader may be shocked to discover that he has thought in such terms himself. He may even catch a glimpse of what a discouraged and sad old Mark Twain called "the damned human race."

Anyway, a whole big cityful of youngsters may no longer, it seems, discover for themselves the magnanimity of Jim, and may no longer see for themselves how magnanimity encourages gentleness and thoughtfulness in others. What is probably the most powerful defense of the Negro ever written is now banned.

We have been through it with Chaucer, who as a fourteenth century writer told a medieval story involving hypothetical Jews. We have been through it with Shakespeare, who as a sixteenth century writer used a stock dramatic character called a Jew—and made his Jewish heroine utterly delightful. We go through it with a nineteenth century writer of Southern upbringing who was tormented by the sufferings of Negroes. Let us now go through it with Washington Irving, whose Dutchmen are comics; and revive the censor's attitude toward Gilbert and Sullivan, whose *Mikado* is a clown. Perhaps Elsie Dinsmore will turn out to be the only character safe to read about, in school or out.

S. A. N.

Book Reviews

W. G. B.

Annual Report of the Carnegie Corporation, for the Fiscal Year Ended September 30, 1956. Carnegie Corporation of New York, 589 Fifth Avenue, 1957. Pp. 99.

John W. Gardner, President of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, begins his *Annual Report*, for the fiscal year ended September 30, 1956, with a statement entitled "The Great Talent Hunt." There has never been a period in our history, Mr. Gardner tells us, when the quest for the *uncommon man* has been more spirited than we find it today. As compact as a Maupassant short story, the essay which stands as prologue to this *Annual Report* should be of great interest and value to college-bound students and their parents as well as to all persons engaged in the work of education at the secondary and college levels.

At this half-way point in our present century of the common man, we have come to the realization "that one of the distinguishing marks of a modern, complex society is its insatiable appetite for educated talent." As a consequence, "Great law firms, which 20 years ago waited regally for law school graduates to knock at their doors, now carry on shrewd and effective recruiting programs. Government agencies comb the colleges for promising recruits. Great corporations send recruiting officers to every major campus." And on their part, "Old and distinguished universities, which 20 years ago thought their only responsibility was to make things as difficult as possible for applicants, now scour the nation in their search for superior students."

This need for the services of the uncommon man has resulted in significant changes in the attitude of society toward educated talent. Before the Industrial Revolution, nearly all societies were "societies of status." In such societies, the thing that counted most was not so much *what a person could accomplish* as it was *who the person was*. But the whirligig of time has brought about a shift of emphasis, and in the United States today, as well as in many other countries, the thing that has now come to be of most importance is not so much the question of *who you are* but *what you can accomplish*. Democracy at its best must always seek to reconcile the ideals of equality with the need for superior minds.

This immensely increased demand for educated talent gives an added importance to the role which our colleges and universities are counted upon to play in our national life. As Mr. Gardner writes: "Virtually the total future leadership of our society—political, cultural, industrial, technical, professional, educational, and agricultural—is today being channeled

through the colleges and universities and, increasingly, through our graduate and professional schools. It follows that these institutions will play a far more weighty and powerful role on the American scene than anyone had anticipated. As the cradle of our national leadership, their vitality and excellence become a matter of critical importance." In view of this importance of our colleges and universities to our national life, it is sobering to reflect that we annually spend about one and one-half times as much each year on tobacco products as we do on higher education, about two and three-fourths times as much for alcoholic drinkables, and our total annual expenditures for higher education stand at only eight-tenths of one per cent of our gross national product.

In the last analysis, the students in our schools are the ones upon whom the impact of this great talent hunt falls most heavily. As Mr. Gardner writes in this connection: "The objective value which the world attaches to a college degree cannot escape the notice of youth. They know, for example, that the armed services recognize a college degree as creating a strong presumption that the possessor is officer material. Similarly, growing evidence of the value which the world attaches to high grades cannot escape attention. The representatives of great corporations who appear on the campus each year to interview the 'top quarter' or 'top half' of the class have left an indelible impression on many a sophomore and junior." It is obvious that this intensified competition will come to pervade all levels of education, and the consequences are in many respects none too attractive. Accordingly, Mr. Gardner sounds the wise warning: "One must hope that ways will be found to soften the edge of competition and minimize harsh comparisons of individuals. And one must hope, too, that we shall have the wisdom to avoid the tyranny of the aptitude tester."

Gentle reader, as Charles Lamb used to say: How would you like to be a high-school student today? The emphasis, as we have just seen, is now heavily directed toward the discovery of quality. But what is quality? And how can quality most effectively be measured? There is, of course, the matter of rank in class. But if one-fourth of the students find themselves in the top fourth of their graduating class, it automatically follows that all the others will be in the lower three-fourths. There is, also, the matter of a scholastic aptitude test such as that conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board. But in the majority of these college aptitude tests, the factor of time is of the essence, and the slow thinker often finds himself at a distinct disadvantage. There is, furthermore, the matter of the late-bloomer: the student who is just beginning to find himself intellectually as his high-school years are drawing to a close. And are we always dead certain that the boys and girls who stand highest in their class, or who make the highest scores on examinations, in secondary school or in college, are the ones who, in later years, will turn out to be the men and women of highest talent and ability?

This stepped-up quest for educated talent carries with it a warning for parents. Fathers and mothers, for instance, should try to get away from the notion that their boy or girl will not be a success unless accepted by one of the so-called "prestige" schools. Some twenty-five or thirty years ago, this was a condition that may have had an element or so of truth in it, but the time is now at hand when what a young man *is able to do* is of more importance than *the particular college or university from which he graduated*. Parents should also try to understand that the subjecting of a child to undue pressures in the secondary school can easily be conducive toward the turning of that child into a nervous wreck. In this connection, there is still virtue in the warning sounded by Herbert Spencer, just about a hundred years ago, in his essay on "Physical Education." As Spencer there stated: "Nature is a strict accountant; and if you demand of her in one direction more than she is prepared to lay out, she balances the account by making a deduction elsewhere. If you will let her follow her own course, taking care to supply, in the right quantities and kinds, the raw materials of bodily and mental growth required at each age, she will eventually produce an individual more or less evenly developed. If, however, you insist on premature or undue growth of any one part, she will, with more or less protest, concede the point; but that she may do your extra work, she must leave some of her more important work undone." Wise parents, therefore, should make every effort to steer their boys and girls into those schools for which they seem to be best fitted.

The emphasis now placed upon educated talent, together with the impending increase in the number of college-bound students, has led a number of our institutions of higher learning to raise their admission requirements. The problems thus stirred up in this area call for the most careful thought and attention on the part of all persons engaged in the work of college or university admission. Is there, for instance, any comforting certitude that our techniques for appraising the over-all potentialities of an applicant are as effective as they should be? Or is it just possible that a penetrating new look at this entire subject of college admission might be in the best interest of the boys and girls whose educational future should always be of vital concern to our society?

There is no need to cover aspects of this latest *Annual Report* of the Carnegie Corporation other than Mr. Gardner's opening statement on "The Great Talent Hunt." It might, of course, in passing be noted that grants of more than seven million dollars were made during the fiscal year concerned, with the major portion going to various projects in the field of higher education. "The Great Talent Hunt," however, should in itself be enough to give thoughtful people enough to think about.

W. G. B.

William Clyde DeVane, *The American University in the Twentieth Century*. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1957. Pp. xi + 72. \$2.50.

The lectures which comprise the four chapters of this readable and scholarly volume were made possible through the munificence of a friend of learning, Mrs. Ida Mitchell Looney, who established at Tulane University in 1954 the Davis Washington Mitchell Lecture Fund in memory of her grandfather, a Louisiana planter and gentleman of culture. Tulane could not have made a better choice than it did when it invited William Clyde DeVane, Sanford Professor of English and Dean of Yale College, to deliver the first of the lectures in this series. And Dean DeVane could not have selected a more timely or appropriate subject than *The American University in the Twentieth Century*.

In his first chapter, "The University—Its Scope and Function," Dean DeVane contrasts the "amazing development of the American university in the last half of the nineteenth century" with the earlier concept of higher education as memorably set forth by Cardinal Newman in his *Idea of a University*. According to Newman, "A university training is the great ordinary means to a great but ordinary end: it aims at raising the intellectual tone of society, at cultivating the public mind, at purifying the national taste, at supplying true principles to popular enthusiasm and fixed aims to popular aspiration, at giving enlargement and sobriety to the ideas of the age, at facilitating the exercise of political powers, and refining the intercourse of private life." With the rise to eminence, however, of the German universities in the last half of the nineteenth century, there came a fundamental change in this earlier concept of education at the university level. This change "featured the great professor giving great lectures and having little else to do with the students beyond examining them to test their professional competence. It featured the library, the laboratory, and research. It insisted upon the advance of knowledge and the publication of dissertations, abstracts, monographs, and papers." Accordingly, as Dean DeVane states: "The university now must not only be the repository of learning and the perpetuator of learning through its teaching function; it has also the immense responsibility of creating new knowledge."

The title of Dean DeVane's second chapter is "The College." Since our colleges now number more than twelve hundred, and since his discussion is directed primarily toward the universities, Dean DeVane quite logically limits his remarks in this chapter to the particular kind of college that is imbedded in the modern university. In this connection, it is interesting to remember that, for the most part, the colleges of this sort are older than their universities; the college, that is, came first, and the university then gradually grew up around it. According to Dean DeVane,

the small independent college, not connected with a university, has its distinct place in our educational system, and is suited to the needs of many students; but it cannot, like the college imbedded in the university, "provide the range and richness, the substantial culture, or the vision of the great world which seems to be necessary to quite a number, or the rare opportunity for the exceptional student to go far in a special field of interest." The great danger which the college must ever seek to avoid is that of becoming a mere reflection of our national culture, or lack of it. The great mission of the college is to make itself "a model of intellectual communal life," and thus chart for its society the pathway to a fuller, richer, and nobler way of living.

In his third chapter, "The Liberating Studies," Dean DeVane advances his own theory as to the curriculum best designed to make the graduates of our colleges "real three-dimensional persons of wisdom, individuality, and conscience." In defense of the liberal arts, Dean DeVane states: "The liberal studies are obviously not those to bring immediate monetary success. But they do bring things that money cannot buy. They are the means to comfort and quiet, and richness of mind—good in themselves. They mature and free the mind, and give it understanding and appreciation. They introduce us to the companionship of the great masters of the past; they form our taste by the best standards. They lead us to be self-critical; to find our place in the world and in history; to think and speak aright, and to become men and women out of the ordinary run." According to Dean DeVane, those subjects are most liberating which are in the best position to send the mind ranging over time. It logically follows that the addition of the historical dimension can do much toward making any study a liberating one. "It is the dimension of history rather than the subject itself that is the desirable end." Another of the dimensions essential to any genuinely satisfactory education is the philosophical one. "This is the dimension of breadth, of relationships, of speculation, and also of analysis and value. It is the area of comparison and judgment, of choice and principle, of weighing and pondering, and finally of synthesis, fitting the parts in their proper proportions and order into a satisfying whole." A third and extremely important dimension in the educational process is the imaginative one. "Here literature, art, and music are the necessary studies, and especially literature as most available to all, for they above other studies extend the spirit, enlarge the sympathies, and refresh the mind."

In his fourth and final chapter, "The University and the National Culture," Dean DeVane explains and defends the thesis "that with the coming of the age of science in its full development to the Western world and the accompanying rise of intense nationalism in our own time, the rise of the United States to pre-eminence among the nations, and the

universal desire for higher education in America, the universities of the country have become the preservers of our culture, the advancers of our learning, to some extent the moulders of the ideas and standards we live by, the imperfect arbiters of taste, and the pride of the nation." It is to universities that we must look for the production of the great germinal minds. To this end, we must seek to reconcile democracy to intellectual quality and to accord proper recognition to the place and importance of the uncommon man.

It is clear that Dean DeVane's purpose in this volume is expository and not critical. He does not, therefore, find it appropriate to consider one of the great unsolved problems of the American university today. It is the problem of co-ordinating, and giving the proper balance to, the companion functions of teaching and research. In Newman's *Idea of a University*, the teaching function of the faculty was the central one. The emphasis was upon the diffusion of knowledge rather than upon its advancement. As the inheritors, however, of the traditions of the German university of the nineteenth century, with the heavy emphasis upon the library, the laboratory, and research, our universities today are often so absorbed with the advancement of knowledge that the teaching function comes to be all but forgotten. And yet this teaching function of the faculty, which is essential to the diffusion of knowledge, is extremely important, particularly in the courses of the freshman and sophomore years. It is assumed that a member of a university faculty will be a learned man. The ideal teacher is, of course, the one who is equally gifted in the areas of teaching and research, but not all learned men enjoy these gifts in such happy combination. That member of the faculty also serves who stands before his class and teaches. And this, by the way, is a virtue often to be found in the small independent college not associated with a university.

The American University in the Twentieth Century is one of the little classics in its field. It is a worthy companion-piece to that other excellent little study, *The Rise of the Universities*, written a number of years ago by Professor Haskins of Harvard.

W. G. B.

Harold J. Berman, *On the Teaching of Law in the Liberal Arts Curriculum*. Brooklyn 1, New York: The Foundation Press, Inc., 1956. Pp. 179.

Are there any educational lacunae in our current programs of liberal arts undergraduate education which may be filled (and can only be filled) by some study of law? Are these gaps so serious that a duty rests on faculties and administration to make room in an already overcrowded curriculum for such studies? If so, how should law be presented to the college undergraduate, and by whom?

These are the problems which thirty-one participants set themselves to discuss at a three-day conference on the Teaching of Law in the Liberal Arts Curriculum held at the Harvard Law School in November 1954. Of the persons participating, fourteen were law school professors (of whom five also gave courses in law in the liberal arts curriculum), seven had law degrees but taught in faculties other than law, five were college professors without law degrees, three were lawyers, one was a judge and educator who has taught law in a liberal arts curriculum, and one was a businessman and former president of an educational foundation. Professor Berman's monograph is a survey of their ideas, agreements, and disagreements.

Professor Berman voices the concern of the law teachers in these words: "As our society has grown more urbanized and our law ways more complex, young men have had progressively fewer opportunities to learn about the workings of our legal system; at the same time the United States has become probably the most law- and lawyer-run country in the world and in history. In addition, the United States is one of the few civilized countries in which the study of law is not undertaken by a substantial proportion of undergraduates, regardless of their professional aspirations."

"There are two major defects of current liberal arts education," Professor Lon L. Fuller maintained; "it gives the student no conception of our legal system, how it functions, what premises it rests on, what public attitudes are essential to keep it sound and wholesome, what role it plays in the total processes of society." "Thus," he says, "a large segment of the world in which the student must later live is arbitrarily abstracted from the curriculum." The second defect, according to Professor Fuller, (and probably the more fundamental) is that in the American liberal arts program of today "the student generally derives from his studies no understanding of the ways in which men actually reach decisions of the kind that form a framework for future human relations and dealings."

The addition of the study of law to the liberal arts curriculum would not only enrich the general education of liberal arts students by giving them an understanding of our legal system—"in showing them the relation between order and disorder in human experience, in giving them insight into the process of reaching rational decisions for action, and in making them aware of law as one of the great freedom-creating traditions of Western thought and action—the teaching of law . . . can also have a scholarly value, namely, the illumination of other humane studies. By such illumination, legal scholarship, too, can be greatly enriched."

The conference then proceeded to indicate how the study of law could interact with the study of the humanities and the sciences, enriching the students' appreciation of each. In its interrelation with the other social sciences, Professor Berman remarks:

"The suggestion is . . . that there are potentialities in law study for encouraging students to view social problems from the standpoint of

people who have the responsibility to do something about them, whether in a judicial, or legislative, or . . . representative capacity."

The participants at the conference were for the most part agreed on the defects in liberal education just stated, and on the remedial contribution which a proper study of law would make.

They differed rather sharply, however, on the manner in which law should be taught, and the materials to be used. It is interesting to note that these differences developed out of the relative importance which each disputant placed in his own mind on various methods and content of legal study, such as the techniques of legal reasoning and the case method, the history of legal institutions and the lecture or project method, concentration on great constitutional and statutory landmarks, and the like.

In the undergraduate course "The Structure and Growth of Law" at Harvard University, the materials chiefly concern the law of conspiracy from the civil and the criminal viewpoint. A preliminary discussion of the factual, political, and economic background of a single leading case in criminal conspiracy gives the student an idea of a choice of remedies, the difference between the civil and criminal approach to the problem, the nature of statutes as compared to law by judicial decision, and the impact of English on American jurisprudence. The briefs of counsel in the case illustrate the sources of law, how legal doctrine has grown, the effect of political and economic considerations.

Then in analyzing the opinion of the court in this leading case, the student becomes aware of the narrow limits within which a judge must act in the process of making a decision in a specific case. After discussion of the leading case, other cases are introduced to show the later development of statutory and decision law in the field.

Thus from a narrow base, the student is led to an ever widening view of law as an instrument of social control. He also begins to gain facility in the techniques of legal reasoning and decision making.

On the other hand, at the University of Wisconsin, in the course called "Law in Society" the law governing industrial accidents and Workmen's Compensation furnishes the root from which stems, through court opinions, lawyers' briefs, lobbyists' memoranda, statutes, legislative hearings, and administrative regulations, a comprehensive concept of our modern legal system. The same subject becomes a springboard from which to enlighten the student on the philosophy and history of legal principles—how the coming of the factory age compelled a change in legal and social thinking from the traditional view of individual responsibility for injuries by industrial accident based on the duty to take care, to the modern theory of Workmen's Compensation as a necessary charge on industrial society as a whole, without inquiry as to where the fault for injury originally lay.

The wide diversity of suggestions among the participants in the symposium

sium as to the method and content of the proposed course or courses in law clearly demonstrated the vast storehouse of educational wealth which the law offers as a subject for study. If one were to state an area of agreement, it was that method and content could well be left to depend on the individual capabilities, interests, experience, and scholarship of the teacher. It was an almost universal consensus that the teacher should be one who has had law school training with either a major or minor education in one or more of the other social sciences.

That the conference was held at all, that the discussion which came out of it indicated a strong interest and some well-developed experience in teaching law in the undergraduate liberal arts colleges, dramatizes a trend which is destined to spread throughout the American academic world.

If a liberal arts college education is to be the best preparation for a cultured citizen in our democracy, it must stimulate in our people the development of the mental equipment to make reasoned judgments looking towards immediate optimum action, tempered, however, by those traditional principles which are still sound. The law, and the law alone, has the educational potential to furnish that stimulus.

JESSE S. RAPHAEL
Professor of Law
Pace College, New York

Engineering Enrollment in the United States, ed. by Norman N. Barish. New York: New York University Press, 1957. Pp. x + 226. \$7.50.

During the last half of the nineteenth and the first half of the twentieth centuries, the development of engineering education in the United States has been unprecedented. Norman N. Barish, using a grant from the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation Incorporated and the able assistance of others, has presented in this publication facts which should concern every person affiliated with engineering education. In addition to those directly related to this area, it should be of interest to educators in all areas. Engineering education alone has not accounted for the progress of the scientific and technological development of this country, but it certainly has played a major role.

The first four chapters, fifty-five pages, are devoted to the growth of engineering education, enrollment trends, enrollment outlook for the future, and the relationship of engineering education and manpower requirements of the United States. Chapters V through XXII are written by outstanding men in the various fields of engineering. Each of these chapters relates to a specific field. The last chapter deals with engineering training in Russia.

The number of engineers in the United States has increased from a

few hundred in 1850 to about 225,000 in 1955. Five schools of engineering enrolled about 250 students in 1850, whereas 216 schools had an enrollment of 239,500 students working in both graduate and undergraduate degrees in 1955.

The percentage of young people graduating from high school is increasing; the percentage of high school graduates entering engineering schools is increasing; and the college-age population is increasing. All of these factors, along with greater demands for a greater manpower with scientific and technical training, add up to a great increase in future enrollment in engineering.

The past decade has been one in which the engineering schools have tended to produce a large quantity of engineers to fill immediate needs. This picture is changing. Currently, the most critical need is for highly trained research engineers and those with the highest possible creative ability. Therefore, the pattern of engineering education is changing, and curricula are being revised accordingly. Each specialty has tended to follow the needs for professional engineers in the development of its undergraduate curriculum. Periods of political unrest, economic changes, and continual rapid accumulation of scientific knowledge have affected them all. The results are varied, but some results seem common: a trend to continually decrease the number of "applied" courses such as mechanical shops, surveying, etc.; a tendency to continually increase the more basic scientific and highly theoretical courses; and a greater emphasis upon the socio-humanistic needs.

M. H. Trytten in chapter XXIII does an excellent job of presenting the Russian advances in engineering education. It is obvious that they, too, have made great strides, but this presentation does not leave one scared of their progress as compared to the progress of the United States, even if they were the first to succeed in launching an earth satellite.

College and university administrators will find this book very interesting and helpful. It will be useful as a reference to those making future enrollment projections. It will provide an aid to the admissions officer who must counsel with the high school students, so many of whom desire to be budding young engineers. Perhaps no publication could do more to point up the need for strengthening secondary school offerings for those students who desire to continue their education in a scientific field.

NELSON R. PARKHURST
Acting Registrar, Purdue University
Lafayette, Indiana

Claude E. Buxton, *College Teaching: A Psychologist's View*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1957. Pp. viii + 404. \$4.95.

This book is written primarily for the beginning instructor, the new

Ph.D., who presumably has learned everything about his subject except how to teach it. By way of filling this gap in the new instructor's preparation for his task, Professor Buxton discusses a wide variety of practical matters, as well as some theoretical issues in modern education.

Since the author himself is a psychologist, many of his precepts and his examples are based upon the teaching of the introductory course in psychology; but the points that he makes are, for the most part, applicable to the teaching of other subjects as well. The topics covered include such questions as the career of the college teacher, planning the introductory course, lecturing, the construction, administering, and grading of examinations, maintaining classroom morale, advising students, and so on. Although the author has a great deal of helpful advice to offer concerning these and other matters, much of what he says is so obvious that it scarcely seems to justify the trouble of putting it down on paper. Not even the beginning instructor, it is to be hoped, needs to be told that "another determiner of the job market is found in the particular discipline one is in"; or that "he must learn about the grading system of the institution"; or that "students do not evaluate their instructors the way faculty colleagues do."

It is evident, too, that Professor Buxton's own sympathies place him rather on the side of "student centered" than of "subject centered" methods of instruction. In this respect, he shows himself to be an able exponent of the "teachers college" view of education—a view which, at long last, is beginning to receive serious challenge from responsible quarters. There are many persons in college teaching who, like this reviewer, deplore the preoccupation of present-day educationists with "methods" and "values" at the expense of more solid content in the curriculum. To such as these, Professor Buxton's book is likely to appear—perhaps unjustifiably—as merely contributing to a tendency which already is receiving far too one-sided an emphasis, even at the college level.

FRANCIS L. HARMON
Professor of Psychology
St. Louis University

Improving Teacher Education Through Inter-College Cooperation, ed. by George E. Hill and E. F. Potthoff. A publication of the Subcommittee on Institutions for Teacher Education, Commission on Research and Service, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company, 1956. Pp. vii + 250.

"'Cooperation' is the key word in an effective program of teacher

education." With this statement, George E. Hill, Director of the Cooperative Project in Teacher Education prefaces this volume, which deals with the nature, purposes, and findings of an eight-year intercollege study under the sponsorship of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Thirty-nine member colleges of the Association in fourteen states sent delegates to summer workshops held at the University of Minnesota to study six general topics: (1) the faculty in teacher education, (2) the improvement of general education, (3) improvement of instruction, (4) bettering the professional education of teachers, (5) expanding student personnel services, and (6) developing fifth-year and in-service programs for teachers.

This study, aimed "to assist the member college to improve its own program through the added impetus gained by working with other like-minded institutions," reflects the acknowledged leadership of the North Central Association and the lively interest in a co-ordinated program of self and group improvement on the part of a large number of Middle Western teacher training institutions, both large and small. Summaries of the deliberations and results of the program, although occasionally a bit weighty in educational jargon, reveal penetrating insight with regard to current problems and the tremendous amount of planning, critical evaluation, and self-analysis engaged in by the co-operating schools and their delegates. The workshops have resulted in definitive action in the form of experimental programs on the local level, improved facilities, expanded services, curriculum reorganization, and an impressive amount of resource materials and publications.

In the matter of staffing the college, orienting new faculty members, providing for faculty growth, and appraising teaching competence, most of the report would be applicable and valuable to any college, not just the school for teacher education. A check-list of faculty personnel services, an outline for a faculty handbook, and a list of the characteristics of the effective teacher are three products which are worthy of particular notice.

In discussing the improvement of general education, the editors point out that, although the so-called "general education movement" began several decades ago and became a pronounced trend some fifteen years ago, there is still lack of agreement on choice of content, the most effective methods for implementation, the proper ratio of general to professional education, and the best tools for evaluation of the results. Even more basic, as Dean Ernest Mahan wryly observes, "Wherever groups have gathered to discuss general education, whether it be regional conferences, workshops, or college faculties, usually they have found occasion to wrestle over a proper definition of general education!"

Since evaluation of classroom teaching was regarded as one means by which instruction in a college could be improved, various forms were

developed for such evaluation by students and by alumni as well as self-appraisal forms for use by faculty members. Admittedly, these various forms did not measure the same things, nor with sufficient precision to warrant widespread adoption. Of greater catholicity of interest are the outlines dealing with educational objectives for college teaching, and current evaluational techniques.

The reviewer believes that the chapter on improving the professional education of teachers is the weakest part of the book. Many important topics are treated, but in a manner so hurried and often so superficial that the reader gets the impression that a great many snapshots have been taken, but that there has been no time to develop them to see the actual pictures. Allusion is made to reduction of the number of education courses and excessive duplication, reduction of the old lines of separation in training prospective elementary and secondary teachers, provision for more and better professional laboratory experiences, and improvement of student teaching.

Admission and retention, orientation, housing, guidance and clinical services are among the subjects treated under "Improving Student Personnel Services." Interesting, but rather sketchy, is the discussion of post-college adjustments such as placement, visitation, alumni affairs, and other follow-up services. Allen's study of two hundred and fifty-three colleges and schools of education revealed that there were ninety-one different titles used for the person responsible for the administration of student personnel services, a datum which supports the editors' contention that there is lack of agreement in policies and practices associated with the administration of student personnel.

Of particular interest because of its lucidity, timeliness, and the wealth of suggestions advanced is the section on the fifth-year and in-service programs. A list of "Master Teacher Proficiencies" is given and a graduate core program for achieving these suggested. Various specimen programs drawn from some of the participating colleges are illustrative, as well as the "options," such as the thesis plans, creative research proposals, and others. Even the seven different titles for the Master's degree used by colleges for teacher education in the North Central area came under the scrutiny of this project, but no recommendation was advanced to support greater uniformity of designation.

In fine, the volume would be of particular value as a guidebook and study manual for college faculties concerned with self-evaluation and improvement, or as a reference book in a course on current problems in professional education. Indeed, much of the material would be helpful to any student of contemporary American higher education.

DONN W. HAYES, Registrar
Boston University School of Education
Cambridge, Massachusetts

Bergen and Cornelia Evans, *A Dictionary of Contemporary American Usage*. New York: Random House, 1957. Pp. viii + 567. \$5.95.

Here is The Last Word on some six thousand words and phrases in current use.

In it, Bergen the Great and his sister neatly cut through one Grammatical Knot after another. As a result, School Marms who have long been in love with *whom* are going to be infuriated to learn that *who* is preferred to *whom* in Whom are you looking for? Certain candidates for advanced degrees in English are going to experience a surfeit of adrenalin when they learn that *whomever* is strictly for the literary birds. Purists, happy in their nostalgia for the good old days of Priscian, are going to drop their teeth when they read that *overly*, though a double adverb, is perfectly acceptable American usage.

Most of the comments show excellent sense: "One may say *the reason* or *the reason why*, *gather* or *gather together*. Before anyone decides never to use a pleonastic word, he should ask himself how many of his sentences are necessary. A man who never said an unnecessary word would say very little during a long life and would not be pleasant company. Similarly, inside a sentence the mere sound, the mere number of syllables used, is sometimes more important than the bare meaning of the words. In writing, as in conversation, an economical use of words is not always what we want."

Other comments reveal a nice wit: "The proper name for the melted cheese dish is *Welsh Rabbit*. *Rarebit* is a corruption. . . . Any chef is, of course, free to call any concoction by any name he chooses. But he is not free, among the informed, to overawe others with his own ignorance."

Because the Evanses spent their childhood in England they are particularly interested in differences between American and British usage. Some of these differentia are worth noting, like that, for instance, between British *different to* and our *different from*. On the other hand, some of their distinctions seem hardly worth making, e.g. that the British use *sparkling-plug* for our *spark-plug* and call an automobile fender a *wing*.

The authors make a great effort to round up badly soiled metaphors and send them off to the cliché cleaners. "*Bone of contention*, as a figure for a cause of discord, is obviously drawn from the dogs and, by overuse, has gone back to them." They also want to eliminate all hackneyed phrases like *tighten one's belt*, *steal a march on*, *lion's share*, and *biting off more than you can chew*. Laudable as this advice may be for tidying up sloppy prose, the authors give the general impression that all stereotypes, all allusions, and all figurative language are blemishes which must be expunged. An impressionable reader might get so self-conscious after reading these diatribes that he would hesitate to begin a letter with *Dear Sir*, for fear of using a trite phrase.

Unlike Margaret Nicholson's *A Dictionary of American Usage*, this book pays little or no attention to the word as spoken. To omit the problems and peculiarities of pronunciation is unfortunate. For example, the most important comment to make about *route* is not to warn against its figurative use, as the Evanses do, but rather to note the distribution of its two phonetic variants, *root* and *rout*.

No book like this can cover all words. It does furnish striking examples and some general principles; it is a lively, highly intelligent commentary on a restricted area of usage. A book for leisurely perusal, it belongs on the bedside bookshelf, next to Nicholson's *A Dictionary of American Usage* and the Fowlers' "Old Reliable."

GEORGE S. MCCUE

Associate Professor of English

Colorado College, Colorado Springs

Louis R. Wilson, *The University of North Carolina, 1900-1930: The Making of a Modern University*. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1957. Pp. xxi + 633. \$7.50.

This is the story of the growth of our oldest state university during three important decades. Reduced to its essentials, the story is one of intelligent and adroit leaders changing a small college into a modern and effective state university that has ministered to its state and region. During this period the University of North Carolina has been a leader in teaching, research, and publishing. The social, political, and economic life of the state and region have been directly affected by the astute and resourceful work of the scholars, teachers, and publicists who have labored there. Like many state universities, it was usually short on money, equipment, and buildings. Likewise, it was sometimes beset by religious and other interests that wanted to swing it from the orbit of freedom and liberty. The University was fortunate in having men to lead it in times of crisis who did not let special interest make of it an instrument of provincialism. Not only was it effectively led, but it was able to select for its faculty a number of young men who were able and dedicated. Fortunately, some of them stayed and worked untiringly to help accomplish the task. Also, the University was supported by a loyal group of graduates and an intelligent public leadership that often came to its support in time of troubles. Undoubtedly, grants from foundations and the liberal Kenan grant made it possible to retain scholars that would have gone elsewhere if these grants had not been available.

Four men filled the office of the presidency during these three decades, and three of them were educational statesmen of the first order. The other lived only a few weeks, but he also had all the earmarks of a first-rate

leader. All four were faculty members who had proved themselves before they were chosen.

Francis Preston Venable was a native Virginian, trained at the Universities of Virginia, Bonn, and Goettingen, and the man who organized the administration of the University so that it sets its course toward effective scholarship, research, and teaching. A good research man in chemistry, he was a leader who moved the expanding University into the pattern from which it emerged. Venable was a creative organizer, an architect of an effective academic program, and the builder of a splendid faculty.

Edward Kidder Graham, a native and graduate of the University, succeeded Venable in 1914. The author characterizes Graham as "releaser of the University's spirit and service." Graham was a sound scholar, a man of lofty ideals, and a leader of public opinion. Particularly effective as a speaker and popular with the alumni and the citizens of the State, he "educated" North Carolina in the "subject matter" of what a modern University should be. The University was taken to the people in many ways as a service institution. An extension program and good publicity were means used by Graham. In no wise did he weaken the Venable edifice, but strengthened and enriched it. Graham died of the effects of influenza in 1918 just as he was preparing to take the University out of the ranks of an SATC military camp and back into the mainstream of its purposeful course. Marvin H. Stacy, Dean of Liberal Arts, was given the helm and gave every evidence that he would push forward Graham's program, but he died in a few weeks.

The last of the presidents was Harry Woodburn Chase, a New Englander who was a psychologist trained at Clark, and a rising young member of the faculty. Chase was president from 1919 to 1930, when he left to be president of the University of Illinois. Chase rose quickly from the faculty in the hierarchy of the administration at the time of Graham's and Stacy's untimely passing. He had already made a good impression on students, the public schools, and the faculty by his scholarly leadership, and in teaching. It was Chase's lot to lead the University in the trying years following World War I. In all these strained and troubled times, Chase moved adroitly, bravely, and effectively toward the goals he sought. He won because he was dedicated, wise, honest, vigorous, and brave.

In general, the book is well planned and well written. Sometimes there are repetitions of events that are tiresome and boring. In some places, long quotations and the listing of names of faculty burden the book with matters that might have been put in footnotes or appendices. The author, the able librarian who planned the great library and library school of the University, wrote out of his own rich experience. Dr. Wilson had a leading role in extending the University to the state through his work as director of extension and publicity. He is also one of the

founders of the University Press and the Southern Historical Collection. It is obvious that he is justly proud of the edifice that he had a part in constructing. However, he never allowed his critical faculties to become warped or distorted by his intimate connection with the events he describes.

WILLIAM FRANCIS ENGLISH, *Dean*
College of Arts and Sciences
University of Missouri, Columbia

C. Dale Fuller, *Training of Specialists in International Relations*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1957. Pp. xv + 136. \$3.00.

Within the compass of a succinct report, prepared for the series *Universities and World Affairs* sponsored by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, C. Dale Fuller, Director of the Social Science Foundation and Chairman of the Department of International Relations, University of Denver, attempts (1) to isolate international relations as a field of graduate study, (2) to identify the specialist in international relations, (3) to describe current training programs, (4) to assess the strengths and weaknesses of specialized training as perceived by former students and reported in interviews and replies to questionnaires, and (5) to offer suggestions for strengthening specialized training.

Although acknowledging the diffuse content and ill-defined methods of the field of international relations, Fuller, following in the conceptual footsteps of Harold Sprout, concludes that "the goal of graduate instruction in most American colleges and universities today is to develop in a degree candidate an understanding of three questions: (1) What do states want which leads them to project themselves beyond their borders? (2) How do states attempt to achieve their objectives in foreign affairs? (3) Why do they succeed or fail in the quest?" As he construes the field, international relations is designed neither to convert students into humanitarians with a passion for world brotherhood, nor to indoctrinate geopoliticians with a contempt for all values other than power, nor to train experts in the language and culture of a particular geographical area. The "international relationist," as Fuller in a rather desperate search for an abbreviated nomenclature labels the object of his study, concentrates on the analysis of the relations among nation-states and "must use both the scientific and philosophical methods."

Despite the fluid administrative environment surrounding the study of international relations (graduate programs are managed sometimes by departments of political science, sometimes by interdepartmental committees, and sometimes by special institutes, schools, or departments of international relations), Fuller distinguishes "the specialist in international relations" from "the generalist" and "the subject-matter expert."

The generalist, to Fuller, has acquired a broad education in the liberal arts; the subject-matter expert is highly trained in one discipline (law, for example) or area (Latin America, for example). But the specialist in international relations belongs to an "in-between category of persons who are broadly trained to use materials from many disciplines in grappling with problems of foreign policy." He has been formally educated in international politics, diplomatic history, and international organization; he wishes he knew more about the behavioral sciences. His principal vocational outlets are teaching and government service; occasionally he finds work in international agencies, business, private agencies concerned with foreign policy, and journalism.

Fuller's examination of fifteen graduate training programs at eleven institutions reveals notable diversity. There are two-year programs for the M.A. degree and one-year programs. There are programs with numerous prescribed courses and programs with an abundance of electives. There are rigid language requirements and no language requirements. There are severe thesis requirements and the waiver of all thesis requirements. And although most graduate instruction exclusively emphasizes drill in research and analysis, the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy also takes account of personality factors. "In the main," Fuller can only conclude in the light of the evidence, "programs for the graduate study of international relations are eclectic."

Evaluations of their graduate training in international relations on the part of one hundred and fifty-two former students holding graduate degrees tend to vary with occupational outlet. Teachers and many government workers approve the broad, general education which they received. Former students engaged in business and other nongovernmental and nonacademic vocations are dubious about the value of training in international relations for their careers; many in this category believe that intensive training in economics or effective oral and written communication more directly would further their careers. And while some respondents regret that their foreign language training did not demand greater proficiency, others, especially those with heavy teaching loads in small colleges, regard their foreign language training as wasted effort.

In order to strengthen specialized training programs, Fuller recommends increased efforts to integrate the diverse courses comprising the curriculum of international relations, greater stress on the acquisition of skill in written and oral expression, instruction in pedagogical doctrines for students preparing for academic careers, training in the techniques of the mass media for at least some graduate students, and the adaptation of foreign language instruction to the specific vocational goals of the student. He advocates the establishment of more stringent requirements for admission to graduate study in international relations, and he urges

more systematic consideration of the personality traits of potential specialists in international relations. With these suggestions, Fuller of course does not provide college administrators, teachers, students, and employers with an exhaustive set of recommendations which will elicit prompt, universal, and enthusiastic endorsement. But he does provide them with a highly useful introduction to the main academic problems in the training of specialists in international relations and a unique summary of relevant data.

MERLE KLING

*Associate Professor of Political Science
Washington University, St. Louis*

A Guide to the Admission and Placement of Foreign Students, ed. by Martena Tenney Sasnett. New York: The Institute of International Education in cooperation with the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, World Education Series, 1957. Pp. x + 177. \$2.50.

A Guide to the Admission and Placement of Foreign Students is a "service publication" for American institutions. It was prepared and published by the Institute of International Education in co-operation with the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. The author-editor, Martena Sasnett, was chosen for this task because of her experience in this special field at the University of Southern California, where she served as Foreign Student Assistant and Foreign Records Evaluator. As author of *Educational Systems of the World* (published by the University of Southern California Press, 1952), Mrs. Sasnett is well acquainted with the problems that concern the admission and placement of foreign students.

The purpose of the *Guide* is to assist admissions officers in developing effective procedures for a selective admissions program for foreign students. Mrs. Sasnett and her sponsors utilized the services of an advisory committee of admissions officers and administrators familiar with this problem.

The *Guide* contains six major divisions and an appendix. It covers the problems with which an institution admitting foreign students must be concerned. The establishment of a foreign student program is dealt with in considerable detail, which makes the volume of value, even to the school which enrolls few, if any, foreign students.

There is, also, ample material on organizations that serve foreign students and visitors and on the services that the U. S. Information Agency and Binational Center make available. The *Guide* also covers the Exchange Visitor Program and the services of the U. S. Department of State.

If it does not give all the details, it tells you where such information can be secured. The many items that must concern the admissions officer when dealing with foreign students—items over and above those that are involved when dealing with American students—are spelled out in considerable detail. The processing of an application from a foreign student, the procedure for assembling and evaluating data, the determination of language efficiency, the proper forms for letters of acceptance and rejection, the requirements of Immigration and Naturalization Services are all skillfully presented. The Appendix includes illustrative material ranging from the simple to the complex, and from the common to the unique. All of these contributions will be of endless service to admissions officers. Many of these forms can be used in their present state or adapted for use; no material is copyrighted, with the exception of those items bearing the U. S. Government Seal.

The following recommendations in the *Guide* deserve special mention:

1. That students from abroad should be above average in scholastic achievement and personality qualifications.
2. That admission be based on *bona fide* academic documents.
3. That a student be academically eligible for further study in his own country before being admitted to an American institution.
4. That scholastic advancement be the primary goal for any student admitted to an American institution. That the student should meet our people, learn our culture, and observe democracy in action, are worthwhile objectives, but are to be considered as integrated aspects of an educational experience which is primarily intellectual.
5. That the student be assured of financial resources for study in the United States, either by personal funds or through a sponsor.
6. That the admission of a student from abroad involve co-operation with all administrative officers, faculty, and students.

There are, also, various other recommendations worthy of mention, but not so general in nature.

All admissions officers recognize the implications in the admission of foreign students. The personal lives of those admitted, as well as the lives of the students with whom they live and study, may be considerably changed. With a steady increase of foreign applications, the admissions officer is presented with more serious problems of selection than ever in our history. He will need all the helps he can secure. I would certainly recommend that the *Guide* be used as the *orientation must* for every staff member, in any college or university, who is in any way connected with the admission and placement of students from abroad.

CATHERINE R. RICH, Registrar
The Catholic University of America
Washington, D.C.

Do-It-Yourself Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials, prepared by William H. Strain. World Education Series. A publication of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. 1957. Pp. 36. Single copies no charge; larger orders pay cost of printing.

Admissions officers in American colleges and universities will agree that one of the most perplexing problems with which they must deal is the evaluation of educational credentials of applicants from outside of the United States. A common way of dealing with such credentials has been, of course, to dispatch photostatic copies to the U. S. Office of Education for perusal by the experts in comparative education on the staff of that agency. However, by careful study of this most recent publication of AACRAO, prepared by William H. Strain, Associate Registrar for Admissions at Indiana University and secretary of AACRAO's Committee on Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials, any admissions officer can bring himself to a respectable degree of proficiency in meeting this responsibility. The phrase "Do It Yourself" in the title is the clue to the special value of this pamphlet.

The booklet fittingly begins with a listing and description of the more important reference works dealing with the various educational systems in other countries which should be on the shelf of admissions officers responsible for admitting foreign students. It then proceeds to a discussion of the process of securing needed information and documents from the applicant with suggestions as to how to deal with common difficulties which arise in this connection. Of special value is the section headed "Specific Evaluation of the Educational Reports," which effectively sets forth in condensed form a large number of helpful facts about the characteristics of the various types of educational systems to be found in many of the countries of the world from which students come—all of which are crucially important in determining how an applicant's educational experiences compare with those of graduates of secondary schools in this country. For those admissions officers who are concerned with the admission of foreign students to graduate study, the section entitled "Evaluation of University Degrees and Credits" is particularly valuable. The booklet ends with an eminently practical section giving suggestions for campus administrative arrangements for processing foreign applications.

EUGENE E. SEUBERT

Assistant Dean of Admissions

Washington University, St. Louis

1. *Admissions Information: The Preparation and Use of Admissions Data*. College Entrance Examination Board, P.O. Box 592,

Princeton, New Jersey, or P.O. Box 27896, Los Angeles 27, California. Pp. ix + 73. \$1.00.

This volume comprises a series of papers presented during a four-day program conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board at Endicott, New York. The papers concern *Admissions Information* and should not be confused with the four volumes reporting the colloquia on College Admissions held at Arden House over the past four years. As the foreword indicates, this seminar was designed to deal with operations—to come down to cases concerning the use, preparation, and interpretation of admissions information.

The introduction is entitled "Information Serves the Student" and consists of papers by an admissions officer, a registrar, and a dean. Each of these officials discusses his role in the matter of dealing effectively with the materials which colleges request of candidates for admission.

The body of the work consists of nine papers on the preparation and use of admissions data. Practically every phase is covered from the collecting, coding, evaluation of admissions information, and the recording, sorting, reproducing, and communicating of this information, to the use of various techniques in research and the development of course placement systems using admissions data. A tenth paper on the communication problems of a scholarship officer is included, although it somehow doesn't seem to belong here, except as perhaps a corollary.

This work certainly is useful to college administrators and can well serve as a yardstick to measure an individual college's admissions procedures. There is, of course, little unity in the manner of presentation of various papers, and as in most symposia reports of this sort, the work suffers from lack of editorship. However, it is unfair to presume that this work was published as a guide to practical admissions practices. It is rather a series of one man's or one school's views of the various aspects of admissions activity. As that, I found it worth while. This reviewer particularly found useful the paper of David Henry on the collection and evaluation of admissions information.

Every admissions officer should have this volume in his office library for use as a source of material and ideas. The volume is poorly documented and annotated, but is sufficiently indexed to be readily used for reference.

RICHARD M. KEEFE
Director of Admissions
Saint Louis University

William W. Biddle with collaboration of Loureide J. Biddle, *Growth Toward Freedom: A Challenge for Campus and Community*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957. Pp. x + 171. \$3.00.

In this closely-reasoned appeal that "Education is the most potent weapon that free men have for defense of freedom" and hence "can be spread with permanence only as a result of changes in people," the authors propose that the community approach is fundamental and should become a "focal point around which many specialties of education should be organized," and that "the logical place to center fundamental education through community development is in American universities and colleges." Then they proceed to suggest various devices to achieve this worthy aim: educational workcamping, teaching methods for students, teaching methods for citizens, and community dynamics for foreign lands. They conclude their eloquent presentation with the chapters entitled "Evaluation" and "Opportunities," concluding their small work with: "Men cannot find an adequate answer to their hopes unless educators accept a humanity-wide responsibility for stimulating growth toward freedom."

As a stimulating cry for the socially-minded educators to "make their knowledge and skill available to restless humanity-on-the-march," the Biddles have to be commended very highly. Furthermore, no educator can argue with them, on the ideological level, that the social processes and human nature "ought to be" all that the Biddles want them to be. Unfortunately, and from a more realistic point of view, many of the ideas of the authors are too far away from "what is." Thus the contribution of the Biddles is not "a challenge to colleges to face educational reality by achieving a closer interplay between students and the community at large" (as the blurb claims). Since a majority of the American people never attend the higher institutions of learning, is it not too ambitious to claim that "the logical place to center fundamental education through community development is in American universities and colleges"? I don't know whether the Biddles are members of a college faculty, but if they know the tendencies in the organization of American institutions they would also know better than to proclaim as "the first recommended step" in their program "the setting up of an interdepartmental bureau." Am I hearing (that is, reading!) right that "many colleges will want to operate in rural areas?" But is not the rise of urban universities one of the marked phenomena of our age? Or is it fair to state that "the details of the processes by which people change have yet to be written?" The Biddles are wrong, since we have numberless studies of conditioning devices, the propaganda methods, and the works focusing on "How To Make Friends and Influence People"—not to speak about such experts as Comenius, Froebel, Pestalozzi, Dewey, and others. The experts in the field of social psychology will also question seriously that "the single most important method for fundamental education of citizens is the attitude of the educator"; any good sociologist will point out that the educator is only one of the many educational elements.

It is to the credit of the Biddles that they protect themselves clearly by such "escape clauses" as: "Mankind's ills will not be cured by education. But they will not be cured without it." Those who, like the reviewer, prefer to have their ideals tied to "what is," will appreciate the work as a cry in the wilderness; those who like to formulate their thought along the philosophy of "what ought to be," will like the battle cry of the Biddles: "The upholders of freedom . . . must have faith, in the future, in the religious values of their tradition, in people, in ethically-guided intelligence."

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK, *Chairman*
Departments of Sociology and Political Science
University of Bridgeport, Connecticut

College Teachers and College Teaching: An Annotated Bibliography on College and University Faculty Members and Instructional Methods. Compiled by Walter Crosby Eells. Atlanta, Georgia: Southern Regional Education Board, 1957. Pp. xiii + 282.

This bibliography consists of 2,665 entries covering one hundred and forty-four magazines and dissertation abstracts over a period of thirty-six years (1920-56). Twenty-three hundred writers are represented in the selections. These entries have been organized into a table of contents of six major divisions and the index.

The major divisions of the table of contents and the number of annotated references in each are as follows:

<i>Field</i>	<i>References</i>
1. General and Reference	52
2. Recruitment and Selection	536
3. Institutional Status	708
4. Teaching Conditions	396
5. Teaching Methods—General	534
6. Teaching Methods—Special Fields	439
(Humanities, Social Sciences, Natural Sciences, Professional Fields)	

The references selected and annotated dealt with *teachers* and teaching, with approximately 1,300 references for each. By design, those publications concerned with administration and a variety of college administrative officials were not included.

Regarding the annotation, the author has this to say: "A serious effort has been made to give compact but significant information concerning each entry." One feature worth mentioning is the attempt to indicate the relative importance of the various entries. Two categories were set up:

exceptionally important (107—4 per cent); and those of special importance (751—28 per cent).

The reviewer believes that this bibliography should be valuable to deans, professors, graduate students, and persons interested in the literature and research in the fields covered.

ADOLPH UNRUH

Associate Professor of Education

Washington University, St. Louis

In the Journals

E. T.

Many of the Journals carry news items and articles written in the light of the Second Report to the President which was released in August by the Committee on Education Beyond the High School. *The U. S. News & World Report* for August 16, 1957, briefly reviews the key recommendations for alleviating the five big problems facing the colleges. They are to double teachers' salaries; to give more financial aid to brighter students in the form of loans and jobs on the campus under a federal work-study program; to expand and make better use of existing institutions and to build two-year community colleges; to increase the financial support from State and local governments, private contributors, and students and parents; and to boost federal help in the form of loans and grants for college buildings and the revision of laws to ease tax burdens on parents and to encourage more gifts to colleges.

Charles A. Foster, Acting Director of The President's Committee, gives a brief but more exact description of these recommendations in the September 1957 issue of *Higher Education*: "Education Beyond the High School: Second Report of the President's Committee." The Committee puts the highest priority on the requirement of greatly improved salaries, and in conjunction with this urges a nationwide effort to recruit high talent for college teaching. Assistance to able young people who should seek a higher education can come from improved guidance and counseling programs as well as from financial aid. Any additional federal aid to students should be balanced by aid to the institution and should be confined to loans, in-school job opportunities, scholarship awards, and federal income tax deductions. Private and locally sponsored programs should increase their contributions to scholarships. Adequate classrooms and other facilities should be provided without diverting funds from needed faculty increases of salary. Space utilization studies are urged. State and local support for higher education will have to be increased. At the same time, certain new forms of federal support should be provided; for instance, land for expansion can be made available through benefits of the slum clearance provisions of the National Housing Act. The federal government should pay the full cost of its contract research programs in colleges and universities. The role of the federal government in higher education should be residual with the planning and effective action coming from the States, local communities, and institutions.

In an article entitled, "Toward a Federal Policy in Higher Education," which appears in *The Educational Record* for October 1957, Richard G. Axt, Assistant Director of the Western Interstate Commission for Higher

Education, compares this report of the Committee chaired by Devereux C. Josephs with the 1947 report of the Commission chaired by George F. Zook. The Zook report was much longer and more detailed and had the "welfare" view of higher education. In other words, they would strive to change the world through higher education. On the other hand, the Josephs Report has the "manpower" view of higher education and would help higher education change to fit the world. Where the Zook Commission expected the federal government to play a major role in achieving the desired objectives, the Josephs Committee does not recommend federal action or assistance in as many areas of higher education and does not call for federal spending in any specific amounts even when federal action is approved. Some of these differences can be accounted for by the changes in higher education itself in the past ten years. The Zook Commission greatly underestimated the proportion of the college-age group which would attend college. The Josephs Committee is faced with the certainty of a demand from such great numbers for a college education that they must be more concerned with meeting the demands than they are with getting increased numbers into college.

While many federal funds have gone to colleges in the past, most of them could not be called federal aid because they were expended for services rendered. These programs developed in a haphazard way without any overall federal policy or co-ordination among the programs. A comprehensive and coherent policy is needed. The Josephs Committee recommends that federal assistance should be given by methods which will strengthen State and local effort and responsibility. They would have the federal government provide more useful data and services. They recommend assistance to students by work-study programs, loans, and income-tax deductions rather than by additional direct scholarship assistance. They add, however, that should a federal scholarship plan become necessary, it should be accompanied by a cost-of-education grant to the institutions. Long term federal loans for the construction of income-producing facilities and grants-in-aid on a matching basis for non-income producing facilities are favored as means for federal assistance in financing higher education.

Mr. Axt points out that the federal policy and action recommended by the Committee does not entirely agree with its analysis of the problems. He would favor more action of the type that would improve the quality of higher education. While the Committee called the impending shortage of teachers the "most critical bottleneck," they had no recommendation for federal action to alleviate it. Action is more needed in this area because it is harder to get funds to raise salaries and recruit teachers from state and local sources than it is to get local financial support for a building program. Mr. Axt recommends a federally supported

fellowship program to assist in increasing the number of trained teachers. He is concerned that so many of the able high school students are not getting into college and thinks federal assistance in improving high school guidance and a federally supported scholarship program are needed.

The *Saturday Review's* Accent on Education Number, September 14, 1957, opens with a concise report by Fred M. Hechinger of the major happenings in the field of education during the past year. Schools are still searching for money and teachers while the number of students increases, but the trend is toward better schools with higher standards. The organization of small colleges, the discussion of merit pay for teachers, a demand for a longer school year, the use of TV in the classroom, and the progress of integration are among the activities mentioned.

Terry Ferrer, education editor of *Newsweek*, writes of "Our Egocentric College Youth." These young people are not interested in causes, and they are not much interested in their studies, but rather in the realization of their own personal desires. Miss Ferrer quotes a study made by Dr. Philip E. Jacob, professor of political science at the University of Pennsylvania, to point out that most students today are self-centered but they are also contented with the status quo. Miss Ferrer suggests that only the students in the smaller or denominational institutions can be expected to "achieve notable standards in respect for learning and political and moral values," and he warns that "mental apathy and easy-does-it values should hardly be the hallmarks of so-called educated men and women."

Leonard Buder, staff education writer of *The New York Times*, also laments some of the shortcomings of today's youth as "The Children of Conformity." Politically today's youth are at the center with little tradition of protest or organization to improve affairs, yet adult nervousness has given them an anxiety that the good things of life may be lost. "Conformity is insured by a widespread sensitivity to the expectations of others, rather than to tradition or to a 'voice from within.'" The emphasis in schools on well-rounded persons and contentedness works against creativity and the development of genius. Perhaps the youth have observed in an adult society that it is safer to conform than it is to become an individual.

The *Saturday Review's* report on "The Impending Campus Crisis" is written by Richard C. Wald, staff writer for the *New York Herald Tribune*, in the light of the report of the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School. This year our college age population is the smallest it's been in twenty-five years, yet the number of students in institutions of higher learning is the greatest ever. The crisis comes as the size of the college age population increases. As the President's Committee emphasized, an expansion in enrollment must be accompanied by adequate

provision for faculty. Partly because it is more economical, the development of existing institutions should take priority over the establishment of new ones. Many schools, however, such as a number of Ivy League colleges, Stanford University, and the well-known women's colleges, plan to raise admission requirements rather than to expand. On the other hand, Fordham, Rutgers, the state universities, and such universities as Wichita and Kansas City will expand greatly. The nonaccredited colleges are now working together as a group to raise money and to gain the accreditation that will enable them to expand to take care of many more students. The establishment of junior colleges in New York City and the development of two-year branches of Ohio State University are plans that are now under consideration. Plans for a longer school year are being considered in several institutions. "Oberlin advocates splitting the year into quarters, giving the student two quarters of instruction, one of individual study, and one of vacation." Television is being put to use in some colleges and universities. However, none of these efforts presents a comprehensive solution to the crisis. The outlook is that each year it will be a little harder to get into college than it was the year before.

The report on "Educational TV: Teacher's Friend" is by John K. Weiss, assistant vice-president and treasurer of the Fund for the Advancement of Education. While quantitative pressure is hastening the use of TV in the classroom, in his opinion the qualitative potentialities are of more importance. For instance, the high school physics lectures presented over Pittsburgh's WQED last year by Dr. Harvey White of the University of California are now being shown to tens of thousands of students, many of whom would not otherwise have taken physics at all for lack of a qualified teacher. Such quality lectures in chemistry and in the humanities are in the planning stages. It is now almost certain that educational TV will be closed circuit classroom instruction rather than stations that compete with commercial channels. The ambitious plans of the Southern Regional Education Board, the Pennsylvania State University Experiment, and the Hagerstown, Maryland program of daily TV lessons to more than 6000 children in all twelve grades are developments mentioned by Mr. Weiss.

The September 1957 issue of the *AAUP Bulletin* is one well worth a little time. John P. Lewis, William G. Pinnell, and Herman B. Wells of Indiana University in "Needs, Resources, and Priorities in Higher Educational Planning" point out the necessity for careful planning now if the pre-World War II faculty position in the labor market is to be approximated in 1970. There are many urgent needs in higher education and there will be many demands for the available resources, but the resources will be limited. "The greatest danger in the present planning for higher

education is that planners inadvertently will make the naïve assumption that, because all of the needs they recognize are important and large, it somehow is going to be possible to accommodate all of them within the next decade and a half." Unless a priority is set for increasing faculty salaries to bring the college teacher back to his former position in the labor market, the "whole character and purpose of higher education will be gravely threatened." In order to do this the budget must be curtailed in other areas. Academic plant expansion will have to be kept at a minimum, unnecessary proliferation of courses and curricula must be eliminated, expansion of existing institutions should be encouraged rather than the establishment of new institutions which would be economically inefficient, and the increase in student numbers should be controlled by higher admission standards.

Admission officers and registrars shouldn't miss William R. Mueller's "Report from Upper Upanishad" in which the ideal solution is found. "No one was to be refused admission for any reason whatsoever, and no fee was to be charged until the end of the first semester; . . . no one was to be failed out of the University." After the first semester, fees were determined according to the student's grade average. The student with the high average was even given a full scholarship if he couldn't pay the nominal fee he was charged. For the lower averages, the fees increased in geometrical progression resulting in a charge for the student with the low average of sixteen times that of the one with the high average. "In short, the tuition was in direct proportion to the effort expended upon the student." The poor student who wanted to stay year after year served a philanthropic purpose.

In another article in the same *AAUP Bulletin*, B. K. Trippet, President of Wabash College, discusses "The Role of a Faculty in College Administration." European universities were set up on the principle that matters involving educational policy were to be decided by and with the consent of the faculty. American colleges were founded and managed by laymen. There are advantages to control by governing boards in that members of the faculty oftentimes have vested interests in educational decisions that cause inertia and an opposition to innovation. The diversity of American institutions of higher learning is a result of the influence of governing boards. President Trippet believes that there should be general agreement among faculty, administrators, and board members on the purposes and educational mission of the college. An understanding between faculty and administration and faculty and trustees as to what the institution is trying to do will make the weathering of tensions possible. At Wabash, communication and relations between the faculty and the board are usually through the President and the Dean of the College, but provision is made for direct communication through faculty repre-

sentation on the board, faculty-trustee committees, and luncheons at which the faculty members and trustees meet. "... No major proposal for changes in the character of the College ... is submitted to the Board until it has been fully reviewed by the Academic Policy Committee of the faculty. ... Frequently, if not usually, the whole faculty reviews at length the same question."

A real question is raised by Horace Mann Bond, President of Lincoln University in Pennsylvania, in his study of "The Productivity of National Merit Scholars by Occupational Class" which appears in the September 28, 1957, issue of *School and Society*. By making use of U. S. Census figures on occupational groups and the father's occupation reported by National Merit Scholars, President Bond finds that there is one National Merit Scholar for every 12,672 professional and technical workers. At the other end of the scale, he finds one National Merit Scholar for every 3,581,370 laborers, excepting farm and mine workers. The highest subgroup in productivity of Scholars were the librarians with one Scholar for every 3,195 librarians. Children in whose homes verbal and mathematical symbols are now a part of "the occupational stock-in-trade of parents" will surpass on aptitude tests. Have we a class system almost as fixed as that in Europe? President Bond asks further, "Is our vaunted social mobility a phantom? ... How may we devise instruments to look below the surface of deficiencies in verbal facility induced by familial and environmental circumstances? ... The odds of 1,120 to one, now faced by a laborer's child in competition with a librarian's for National Merit Scholarships, scarcely reflect the absolute in human capacities among American laborers." If there is "talent" in the occupationally underprivileged, would not the provision of the widest possible opportunity for higher education accessible to the masses be more successful in liberating it than scholarship schemes?

In *The Education Digest* for September 1957 there is an unintentionally amusing defense of the educational status quo by Robert A. Skaife, entitled "Neo-Conservatives Are on the March with 'Sound Education' as a Battle Cry." Mr. Skaife, who is Field Representative for NEA, originally published his paper in *The Nation's Schools* for May 1957. The article is amusing because the author indulges so blatantly in name-calling and perversion of intent.

For instance, when a number of members of a P.T.A. group showed dissatisfaction with the local curriculum, Mr. Skaife disposes of them by calling them a "splinter group." When the "splinter group" sought the support of local teachers, they "made a pitch for the support of the local teachers association." "Such tactics," says Mr. Skaife, "are comparable to

those used by the trainer who throws food to an animal in order to divert its attention while he lures it into a cage." *That* ought to show our teachers how the Field Representative of NEA feels about them, the animals!

It doesn't pay teachers, says Mr. Skaife, to align themselves "with groups that do not demonstrate their good faith in the schools." Probably that means: groups that don't like everything that Mr. Skaife and his associates are doing, and all that they recommend. If you don't agree with Mr. Skaife, that is, "it does not pay professional dividends." It is a bit indecent for Mr. Skaife to shed all his protective coloration in public like that!

The final blast is against "subject-matter experts, presumably liberal-arts specialists," who attempt to evaluate a school system. If they do anything like that, warns our author, "the educational fur is going to fly." Mr. Skaife isn't going to tolerate anybody who knows what he is talking about and looking for, snooping around our schools. (S.A.N.)

Reported to Us

M. M. C.

KENNETH P. R. NEVILLE

Kenneth P. R. Neville, President of ACCRAO in 1934-35, died at his home in London, Ontario, on October 1st, at the age of 81.

Dr. Neville held the A.B. and A.M. degrees from Harvard, and the Ph.D. from Cornell University. His major field was Latin. He also held honorary degrees from the University of Western Ontario and from Assumption University. He went to the University of Western Ontario in 1908 from the University of Illinois, as Professor of Classics. He became Registrar in 1918 and Dean of the Arts College in 1927, and filled both positions until his retirement ten years ago.

Dr. Neville was the author of several textbooks, and held various offices in the Ontario Educational Association and the National Conference of Canadian Universities. His handbooks of Canadian education were the principal source of information until the recent publication of the Association's pamphlet on that subject. He was a member of the Board of Colleges and Universities of the United Church of Canada, and a trustee of Queen's Theological College. For many years he was a Director of the London Y.M.C.A. He was credited with revolutionizing the organization of registrars' offices across Canada.

Older members of AACRAO will remember Dr. Neville for his keen and incisive wit, his kindliness, and his unfailing memory for names and faces. He guided our Association through one of its difficult depression years, and provided the kind of leadership which the Association gravely needed in that crisis. He will be warmly remembered by all those who worked with him, as he is by the host of students and colleagues whom he helped and influenced during his years of service at Western Ontario.

W. C. S.

J. Gilbert Quick, University of Pittsburgh registrar for the past 40 years, retired last summer. A member of the Pitt administrative staff since 1914, he will continue to serve the University during the next academic year as special assistant to Charles Peake, assistant chancellor for student affairs. Working on a part-time basis, he will do research on certain problems in the student affairs area. Dr. Quick has been named registrar emeri-

tus, an honor awarded him by action of the University's Board of Trustees.

Endicott A. Batchelder, assistant registrar since 1930, has been named University registrar.

Ernest Whitworth has been appointed registrar at the University of Pennsylvania, succeeding James A. Newpher. Dr. Newpher was made assistant to the vice president for student affairs after serving as registrar since 1946. Mr. Whitworth goes to the University from the Educational Testing Service, where he was program director for scholarship qualifying tests and college scholarship services. He has served as a teacher at Yale University, associate registrar at Cornell University, and director of the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences of the American Council on Education prior to going to the Educational Testing Service, and during World War II supervised the academic training of a number of naval reserve units.

On August 1, 1957 J. E. Tompkins, Jr., became associate registrar at North Texas State College. He had previously been registrar at Tarleton State College. Stuart Chilton succeeded him as registrar at Tarleton.

In July 1957 Ronald B. Thompson was named to the six-member President's Cabinet at The Ohio State University. His responsibilities are in the area of Registrar's Office, Entrance Board, ROTC's, Physical Education, Radio and Television, and Auditoriums. Kenneth R. Varner has been made Registrar and W. Lloyd Sprouse, University Examiner.

Philip J. Driscoll, assistant director of admissions at Brandeis University since 1953 became director of admissions at that institution in July 1957.

Milan Divina has become registrar at Rockford College. Mr. Divina had served as assistant registrar at Crane Junior College in Chicago during the academic year 1956-57. Since 1949, the work of registrar was carried by Mary V. Braughton, Dean of the Faculty at Rockford College.

Pace College has announced the appointments of C. Eugene Morris as dean of students, Paul Dannacher as business manager, and Stanley H. Mullin as director of development for the College. These appointments became effective last September.

The new director of the Graduate Program in Guidance for the College of Education at the University of Bridgeport, D. W. Kern, was formerly director of admissions at that institution. Mrs. Dorothy E. Bowen

is now director of admissions and registrar and Nicholas Panuzio is assistant director of admissions.

In the fall of 1957 Clarence A. Heagle became director of admissions at Russell Sage College. Prior to his present appointment he had served as registrar and director of admissions at Cazenovia Junior College for 12 years.

Louis Truncellito is now assistant registrar of St. Bonaventura University. Mr. Truncellito, who assumed his post on July 1 this year, has had experience in college as well as secondary school teaching.

Myles A. Tracy of Chico State College reports the completion of a study entitled "The Prediction of Academic Success in Certain Junior College Business Curricula."

The Fund for the Advancement of Education, established by the Ford Foundation, has made a grant to AACRAO which will enable the Association to continue publication of manuals on foreign credentials at a greatly accelerated rate. AACRAO had planned to continue publication as fast as funds would permit, and with this generous assistance from the Fund for the Advancement of Education, we shall be able to publish a number of manuals each year.

The Joint Committee of the High School-College Relations Committees of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, at the conclusion of its second annual meeting in Chicago, January 11-12, 1957 forwarded principles and recommendations to the executive committees of NASSP and AACRAO with a recommendation for approval. The report was officially adopted by the Executive Committee of NASSP in February 1957 and by the Executive Committee of AACRAO in April 1957. The report now stands as an official document of both organizations.

The Joint Committee at its 1958 meeting will consider the recommendations on Testing Programs, Counseling and College Days, the results of the revision of the Secondary School Record and Personality Record, and the recommended method for determining Rank-in-Class.

A Dean of International Programs has been appointed at Michigan State University to administer the university's growing activities on the international scene. Selected by the State Board of Agriculture to fill the new position is Glen L. Taggart, professor of sociology and anthropology and extension specialist, who has a background of extensive service in American

projects abroad. Dr. Taggart will administer and co-ordinate the University's assistance programs in Okinawa, Vietnam, Pakistan, Colombia, Brazil, and Mexico.

A measure to administer senior comprehensive examinations at the end of the first semester of the senior year for those departments wishing to do so has been approved by Denison University faculty on an experimental basis. Examinations will be given at the end of the final examination period in the first semester of the year. Senior students will be exempted from all final examinations only for the semester in which they first take the comprehensive examination. Students who receive a failure or a conditional pass in the comprehensive examination will be permitted to retake it at the end of the next semester.

There are two basic reasons for the change. First, it will ease the tension of approaching graduation. Secondly, a student taking the comprehensive at midyear could work on his deficiencies in order to pass the examination when given a second chance.

A new addition to the mathematics curriculum at Davidson College was made last fall, designed to show how mathematics fits into a liberal education. It tries to illustrate the relation of mathematics to other fields of learning. Besides this broad outlook it has three more specific purposes. It is primarily a class for freshmen who do not plan a science major. It minimizes the technical points of mathematics and emphasizes the theoretical. Mathematical ideas and foundations, not formulas, are its main concern. Students qualify for the class by passing the mathematics test given during orientation week.

A general study of mathematical logic inaugurates the semester. Penetration into such phases of mathematics as the foundation of the number system and the anatomy of the infinite follow.

Amherst College's Special Alumni Committee on Admissions recently reported five proposals whereby the liberal arts college may respond to the coming crises of the nineteen sixties without actual expansion. They are as follows:

1. Reduce the time required for graduation for gifted students. The four-year requirement is not necessarily best.
2. Admit gifted students with advanced credit. Under both these schemes some students will spend less than four years on campus, and thereby free some space for additional students.
3. Lengthen the academic year to make better use of physical facilities which are now idle for part of the year.
4. Train more secondary teachers. The small liberal arts colleges once provided a large number of such teachers, and steps could be taken to increase the number being trained now.

5. Provide a center where teachers in the field could come for summer refresher courses.

In 1952, Reed College and the Portland Public Schools initiated a program designed to improve the educational opportunities in the public school for students of superior intellectual capacity and of special talent. The program was establishment under a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education. A committee composed of two members of the administrative staff of the school system and two members of the instructional staff at Reed was given general direction of the program. The program in its experimental stage includes fourteen elementary schools and eight high schools. The special staff in this program works co-operatively with supervisors, principals, and teachers of the regular school staff. One feature of the program in the high schools is a provision for small classes (10-15 students) in the 11th and 12th grades. Selected students are invited to enroll in these groups. These special opportunities are offered in the sciences, social studies, mathematics, and literature either as a substitute for regular classes in these fields or as an additional elective. Upon request of the teacher, members of the Reed faculty in these fields meet with these groups at the high school, and they stand ready to help the teacher with problems of selection and organization of industrial materials.

For a four-week period each summer high school teachers who direct these special groups meet with the Reed faculty in each of these fields. Annual conferences are held at which representatives of nearby colleges and universities meet with the high school teachers in the program to discuss what both the high schools and colleges can do to improve the educational opportunities for the superior student, and to ease the transition from the secondary school into college.

Valparaiso University has named a permanent committee to explore the possibilities of introducing graduate work at that institution. No definite date has been set for the beginning of graduate work there since certain survey-studies must be made before graduate work can be introduced on the sound, accredited basis needed to insure an integrity-bearing degree which will stand and win national accrediting agency examination and approval.

Dr. Alfred Meyer, head of the Department of Geography and Geology, is the head of the committee on graduate work. Three *ex officio* members include President Kretzman, Dr. Walter Bauer, Dean of the Faculty, and Dr. Albert Scribner, vice-president of business and finance.

Establishment of an Honors College at Michigan State University for students of superior ability has been approved by the university's governing

board. Believed to be the first such college of its kind in an American public university, the new college will provide special opportunities for students who show promise of high achievement in all fields.

Admission to the Honors College will be based on academic performance during the freshman year. Students who qualify at the end of their first year by achieving a "B plus" average will be relieved of all normal requirements of graduation other than the total number of credits. Each student then will have a program carefully planned for him by an adviser in his field of interest. The program for these Honors College students may include the attaining of credit in some courses by examination, independent study under the supervision of a faculty member, waiving of prerequisites for advanced courses, permitting qualified undergraduates to enroll in graduate work, and other means designed to give the maximum challenges to able students.

The U. S. Office of Education plans a study of college and university staffing problems. The study beginning in the fall of 1957 will extend over a number of years. A survey of current staffing problems and methods used in solving them is the first phase of the study and is an outgrowth of a conference on "Staffing the Nation's Colleges and Universities" held in Washington, D.C. in the spring of 1957. The principal findings resulting from the survey are expected to be in the hands of university administrators by early 1958.

The value of scholarships available to undergraduate college students increased almost $2\frac{1}{2}$ times in a recent five-year period, according to a report of the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

A survey showed there were 237,000 scholarships valued at \$65.7 million in 1955-56, compared with 124,000 scholarships worth \$27 million in 1950-51, when the last previous study was made.

Altogether, scholarships, loans, and campus employment available to college students amounted to more than \$144 million in 1955-56.

A total of 1,562 institutions, enrolling more than nine-tenths of the nation's college and university students, reported some form of student financial aid. Only 189 institutions covered by the survey reported no student aid. A total of 1,198 institutions reported scholarships in the 1950-51 study.

Only those grants involving neither repayment nor employment were reported as scholarships. State-financed scholarship programs were excluded. The survey also was limited to financial aids over which the college or university exercised some control.

Loans and campus employment opportunities were included since these

forms of aid, the report points out, "are growing in importance as enrollments in colleges and costs of attending college increase." Loans totaling 77,000 and valued at \$12.5 million were reported. About 288,000 employment opportunities, through which students could earn \$65.9 million, also were reported.

The authors of the publications "Financial Aid for College Students: Undergraduate," and "Financial Aid for College Students: Graduate" are Theresa Birch Wilkins and Richard C. Mattingly, who are research assistants in the Division of Higher Education.

Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare Marion B. Folsom appointed a special Department Task Force, headed by Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education, to review the findings and recommendations of the Second Report to the President of the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School. The Secretary also urged that the report be given careful study by State and local education agencies, regional education organizations, and other groups concerned with higher education.

Mr. Folsom said, "A review of the Committee's report will, I am sure, give all who are concerned with the problems of higher education new insight into the magnitude and complexity of the task ahead.

"Both Commissioner Derthick and I are most anxious that the Department's programs concerned with higher education be improved in every practicable way. While the responsibility for education rests principally with the States and local communities and with educational institutions, there are certain national considerations involved in education, and the Department wants to make the best contribution it can with the resources available to it.

"The programs of the Office of Education have been considerably improved in recent years, but there is no question that further progress can and should be made.

"One of the most urgent needs is for better data on current trends and probable future needs in education. To that end, the Office of Education some time ago invited a number of experts to serve as special consultants to the Office's program of basic statistics.

"This committee of experts is now actively at work on the development of a long-range program to provide better information on the status and needs of education."

A comprehensive "Survey of Voluntary Support for America's Colleges and Universities" will attempt to secure at one time and in a co-ordinated way information previously requested separately by the American Alumni Council, the American College Public Relations Association, and the Coun-

cil for Financial Aid to Education. These three organizations have combined their efforts in a program which eliminates one separate annual questionnaire.

In the material which has been mailed to college and university presidents the objective is stated as follows: "to obtain (a) a composite record of the current volume of financial support, (b) a record of the most productive sources of support, and (c) help toward identifying potential sources of added support." The American Council on Education has been interested in this project both because of its inherent value and because it eliminates one source of duplication of effort in questionnaires to institutions of higher learning.

Off-duty college studies for thousands of Armed Services officers and enlisted men are being drastically reduced as the result of budget cuts, according to a story in the September 7 issue of the "Army-Navy-Air Force Journal."

Fortune magazine reports that U. S. higher education is an enormous charity and the people who chiefly finance it are the teachers. Though board and lodging are usually charged for at cost, an insignificant number of the three million current college students, even at the most expensive institutions, pay the full cost of their instruction. While fees in fiscal '57 were on the average at least double what they were in 1940, the \$1 billion total still covered only one-third of the costs of instruction. The private institutions' (42.9 per cent of enrollment in 1956) standard discounts from costs average about \$500 a year per student, while those at state institutions average about \$800.

It is the U. S. college teachers who make this contribution "by an amount more than double the grand total of alumni gifts, corporate gifts, and endowment income" by working for shamefully low pay. Half of all faculty ranks, says *Fortune*, earn below \$5,600. Although state institutions offer better salary levels than private ones, a full professor's salary at the average large state university in 1954 was only \$7,000, less than that of a locomotive engineer. Moreover, while college teachers' purchasing power rose 12 per cent between 1940 and 1956, that of industrial labor rose 64 per cent, that of doctors 96 per cent. Since 1970's instruction budget alone is expected to rise to somewhere around \$6 billion—twice the present figure—as enrollment totals double, how to pay for it is Higher Education's major problem.

One promising solution, says *Fortune*, is receiving more and more attention. It is to introduce installment paying and credit into higher education on an order of magnitude never tried before. Although students now raise only 1.5 per cent of their funds through borrowing, it has been

demonstrated that when colleges have substantial loan funds, make them broadly available at low interest and for long terms, and promote their use, borrowing becomes more popular.

Today a college education is an investment that adds an average of \$100,000 to a graduate's lifetime earnings. There is no good reason why U. S. colleges—and teachers—should provide this benefit at a loss. "A loan system that would make higher tuition fees possible would cause a substantial change for the better in the economics of higher education. And something will have to be changed if the system is not to be submerged by 'the oncoming tidal wave of students,' with a resulting general cry for federal rescue."

The Ford Foundation announced grants and appropriations totaling \$49,187,371 in the final quarter (July through September) of its 1957 fiscal year. The total includes \$25.6 million in grants out of appropriations announced in previous quarters. Of this amount a \$24.5 million appropriation approved in March was granted during the final quarter to the Woodrow Wilson Fellowship program to attract outstanding students to college teaching careers. During the quarter the Foundation completed its program in support of training and research in the behavioral sciences and mental health with grants totaling \$9,819,150 to colleges, universities, and research centers. The largest was a \$5 million grant for the continued operation of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences in Stanford, California until August, 1964.

Grants for the Foundation's overseas development program totaled \$5,681,430, the largest of which was \$1.1 million to the Government of Pakistan Planning Board to assist its central and provincial planning agencies through the advisory services of Harvard University. For assistance in the establishment of an English Language Training Institute, the Government of India received a grant of \$685,000.

The Joint Council on Economic Education received \$600,000 for general support of its program of creating objective understanding of the economic system. The Joint Council, which represents agriculture, business, labor, government, and education, works primarily through secondary school teachers. This and other grants in support of economic research and education during the quarter totaled \$1,397,882.

Totals for other Foundation programs were: citizen participation in public affairs, \$508,000; international understanding, training, and research, \$2,573,400; education, \$25,252,509; humanities and the arts, \$760,000; science and engineering, \$600,000; urban problems, \$995,000; and other, \$775,000.

Miss Doris Duke has presented a gift of \$100,000 to The Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Art. The sum was given by Miss

Duke personally as a memorial to her father, the late James B. Duke. It was made for the unrestricted use of The Cooper Union and has been placed in the Centennial Development Fund, which will be used to construct a new engineering school building and to strengthen the educational program of the tuition-free college that Peter Cooper founded in 1859.

Since the beginning of the Centennial Development Fund drive in October 1956, pledges and gifts have increased the fund to a total of more than \$4,000,000, according to the chairman of the trustees of The Cooper Union. This represents more than half the goal of \$7,500,000 which The Cooper Union hopes to obtain by the time of its 100th anniversary in 1959.

Regional Associations

ARKANSAS ACRAO

The Arkansas Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers held their annual meeting at John Brown University, Siloam Springs, Arkansas, on October 21 and 22, 1957. The Arkansas Deans' Association held their annual meeting at the same time and the two Associations held a joint dinner meeting.

A Question Box Session was held during the afternoon of October 21, and the morning of October 22 was devoted to a discussion of the problems of the registrar. Clyde Vroman, Vice-President of AACRAO, presented two addresses: "Our Role in Education" and "The Frontiers Of Our Profession."

The following officers were elected for 1958:

President: Clara Willis, Registrar, Arkansas A & M College
Vice President: Roger F. Cox, Registrar, John Brown University
Secretary-Treasurer: Matsye Gantt, Registrar, Southern State College
Editor, Newsletter: Mrs. Ruby T. Villines, Registrar, The College of the Ozarks

KANSAS ACRAO

The annual meeting of the Kansas Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held on the campus of Kansas State College in Manhattan on October 24, 1957. Roy Armstrong, President of AACRAO, gave an address on the topic, "The All American Student: Finding and Placing." Professor G. Bailey Price, of the University of Kansas, presented an address entitled, "New Developments in High School and College Mathematics."

A committee reported on the matter of publishing a handbook for all of the schools in Kansas. Also, the group voted to have representatives investigate the possibility of forming a regional association of midwestern states grouped around Missouri and Oklahoma.

The following officers were elected for the coming year:

President: Mrs. Laura Cross, Assistant Registrar, University of Wichita, Wichita
Vice President: Ellsworth Gerritz, Director of Admissions and Registrar, Kansas State College, Manhattan
Secretary: Evelyn Clark, Registrar, Friends University, Wichita
Treasurer: Sister Romana Horsch, Registrar, Sacred Heart College, Wichita

UPPER MIDWEST ACRAO

On October 21 and 22, 1957, the Upper Midwest Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers held its annual meeting at the

College of St. Benedict in St. Joseph, and St. John's University in Collegeville, Minnesota. Both institutions served as host for this meeting. The AACRAO Past President, William C. Smyser, presented an address, "The Importance of Definitions," at the main dinner meeting.

The program included a panel on the topic: "Effective Co-operation to Meet Rising Enrollment Problems." John Schwartzwalder, General Manager of the Twin City Area Television Corporation, spoke on the topic, "New Possibilities of Television." The Special Projects Committee reported on a variety of projects currently carried on by the Upper Midwest ACRAO.

The new officers elected for 1958 are:

President: True E. Pettengill, University of Minnesota

Vice President: M. E. Burgi, Southern State Teachers College, Springfield, South Dakota

Secretary: Sister Helen Margaret, College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, Minnesota

Treasurer: Wayne A. DeVaul, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa

WEST VIRGINIA ACRAO

The West Virginia Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers held their annual fall meeting at Clarksburg, West Virginia, on October 16, 17, and 18, 1957. The opening address was given by President Stanley H. Martin of West Virginia Wesleyan College, representing the Council of College Presidents. The program was highlighted by presentations by Roy Armstrong, President of AACRAO; Lawrence R. Lynch, Past President of the West Virginia State Board of Education, who spoke on higher education as seen by a member of a governing body; and State Superintendent R. Virgil Rohrbough, who discussed the future plans for the State Department of Education.

Harry B. Heflin of Glenville State College, reported on the high school testing program launched in 1957 on a small scale and indicated their plan to go into a state-wide total testing program for all high school juniors next spring. T. J. McGinnis reported on the attempt being made to standardize scholarship application forms. J. Everett Long reported on the meeting of the Teacher Education Committee.

The officers elected for the coming year are:

President: Luther E. Bledsoe, Registrar, Marshall College

Vice President: R. W. Kiser, Director of Admissions, West Virginia Wesleyan

Secretary-Treasurer: Stanley R. Harris, Assistant Registrar, West Virginia University

Correspondence

To The Editor:

May a temporary helper at registration speak in behalf of some full-time sufferers? My job at registration was to give occasional directions to graduate students, and fill in my hours by putting piles of transcripts into alphabetical order—and I've had it! My eyes burned from trying to read the names—*just the names!*—on pale, blurred, incomprehensible transcripts. A couple, which should have shown names at the top, had been beheaded by the trimming knife, one partially, one wholly.

Since there is no order among transcripts, the name can appear just about anywhere on just about any size and shape of paper. Some transcripts are so long as to need folding; some so tiny as to be illegible without a glass. Some come in the shape of an L.

It was all a mess, and I said so to the full-time girls in the office. I told them I had never had a dirtier job to tackle. They agreed—but they have become resigned. It is a poor recommendation for a system that people eventually learn how to put up with it!

M. V. S.

Placement Service

AACRAO maintains a Placement Service, which serves as a clearing house for those seeking employment and those with vacancies to fill. The service is under the direction of J. Everett Long, West Virginia University, Morgantown. There is no charge for listing.

There is a fee of \$3.00, however, for those who wish to publish a notice on this page. They should send with their application for listing, copy for the advertisement (limited to 50 words) which they wish to insert. For insertions beyond the first, the charge is \$1.00 an issue. Remittance in full in favor of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers should accompany the application.

Correspondence, applications for listing, and inquiries about advertisements should be directed to Mr. Long. Requisitions and purchase orders should be directed to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, in care of Mr. Long.

Neither the Association nor its Committee is an employment agency, and neither assumes any obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or responsibility of employers. It is expected that at least some reply will be made to all those answering advertisements.

WANTED: Position in Registrar's or Admissions Office offering opportunity for broad experience. Married college graduate in early thirties with experience in teaching and personnel administration. Joseph Logan, 2811 Nicholson Street, Hyattsville, Maryland. (1/1)

Position available second semester or July, 1958 for Registrar or Director of Admissions in a liberal arts college located in the southeast. Enrollment 700. Prefer a woman with experience in college work. Address: W, care editor. (1/1)